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AUGUST 7th, 1920



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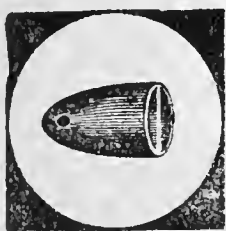


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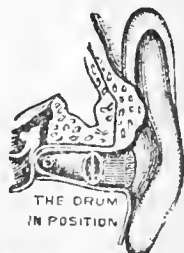
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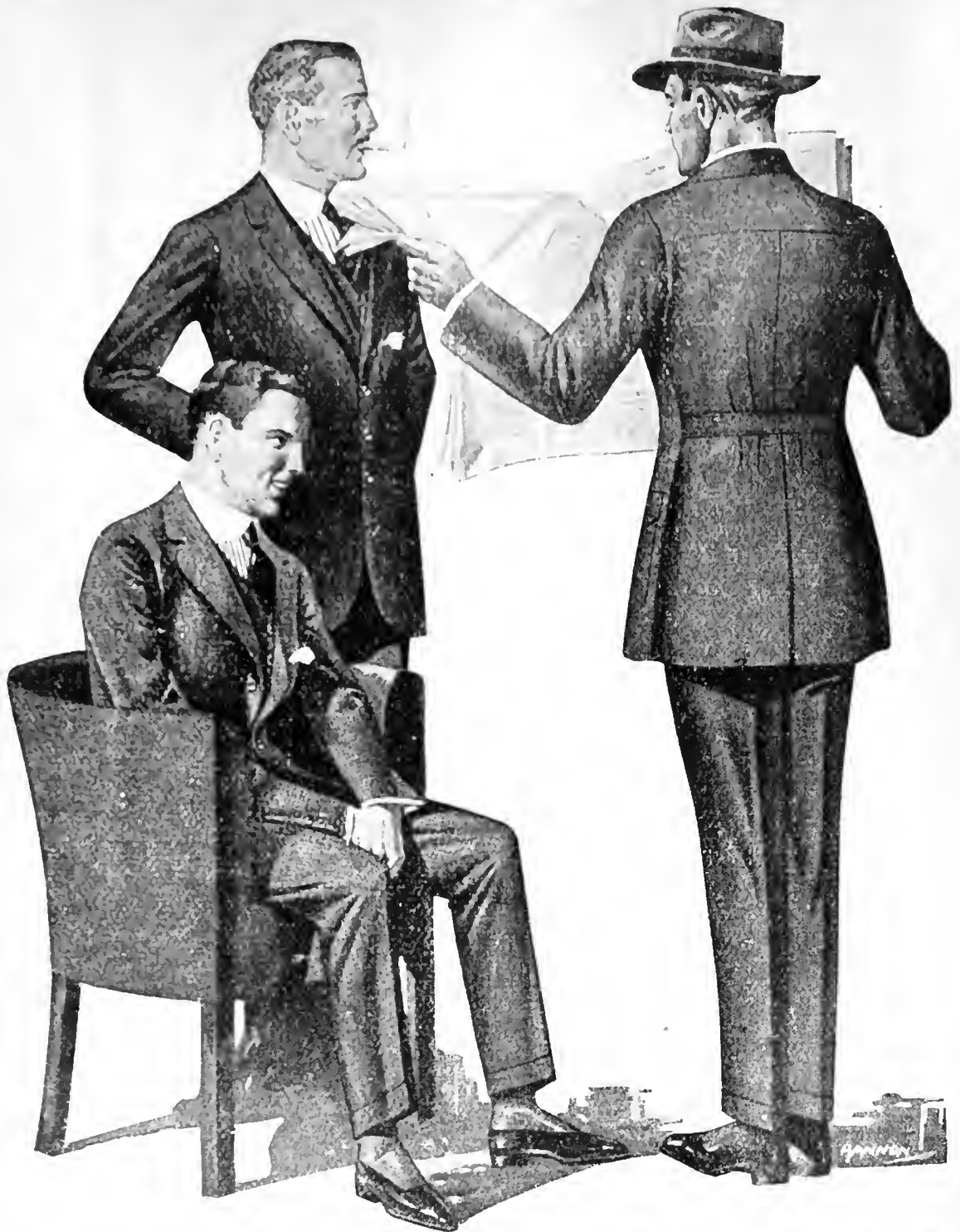
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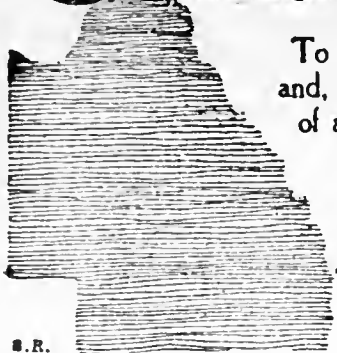
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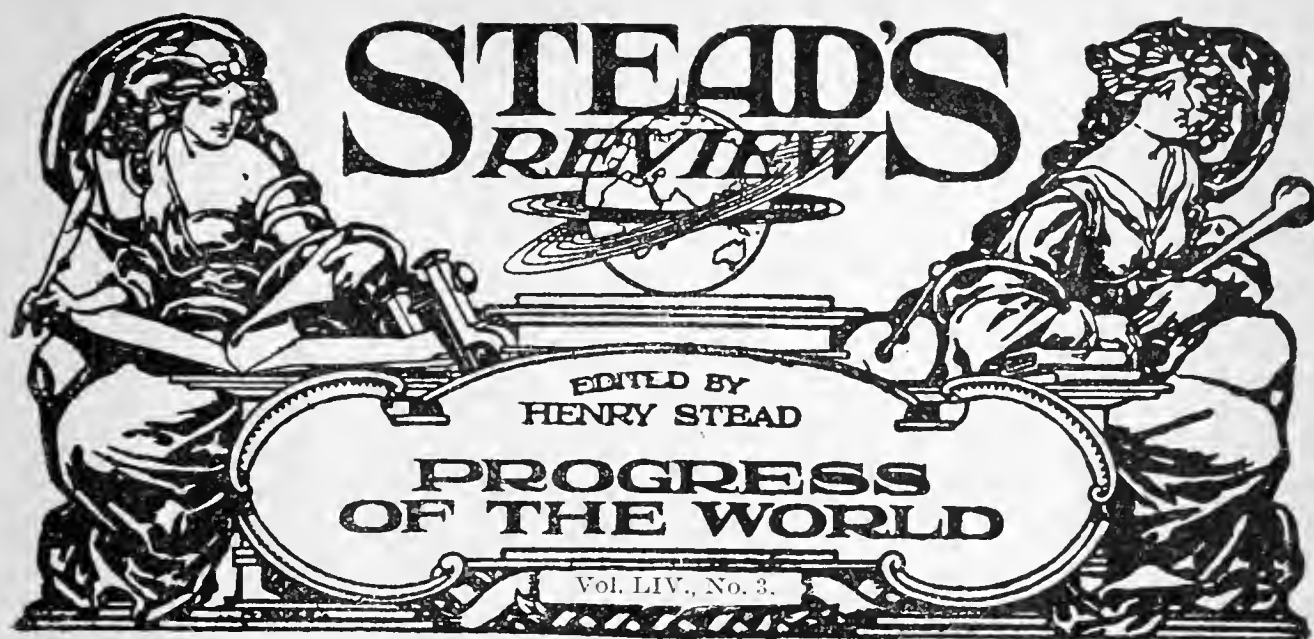
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An Able and Valuable Document.

The Germans at Spa in the end agreed to the demands of the Allies, but whether Germany will be able to meet them remains to be seen. Although the meeting at Spa was supposed to be nothing more than a formal gathering at which the Germans were to hear and accept the dictates of the Allies, it actually became in the end a conference, in which the views of the representatives of the defeated nation were listened to, and considered. Lloyd George's speech on the results of the meeting is extremely significant, and it is to be hoped that summaries of it published here were widely read. It would be difficult to find a greater contrast between what he said about the German proposals concerning the payment of reparation, and the reports which were cabled out here about them when they were first presented. These declared that the Germans were trying to evade payment, were suggesting an utterly inadequate sum, and were adopting a defiant attitude, that the reparation plan was an attempt to befool the Allies, and "reads like a practical joke," and so on and so forth. To meet the situation the Allies were counselled

to show great firmness, and to use force if need be. Lloyd George, commenting on the German proposals, said: "The Germans had submitted a general scheme for liquidating the reparations. That document had been a most able and valuable one, as giving clear proof that the Germans were making a real effort to grapple with the problem of the indemnity. *It was not an attempt at evasion,* and it had been decided to appoint a committee of experts to discuss the document with the Germans."

Honourable and Upright Men.

Another statement of the British Prime Minister must have chagrined those who insist that Germany cannot be trusted, and that force is the only argument to use with her delegates. He said: "Dr. Fehrenbach, the Chancellor, and Dr. von Simons, the Foreign Minister, were honourable and upright men, who are doing their best to cope with the gigantic difficulties in their path. They had clearly made up their minds to do their utmost to carry out the Peace Treaty, but the Allies were not confident that they could do it in regard to reparation." It is perhaps not surprising that the report of Lloyd George's speech ap-

peared in much cut down form, in most of the newspapers, and that only one of the dailies printed what he said about "war criminals." Much anti-German propaganda has been based on the failure of the Germans to hand over the "war criminals" to the Allies, or to start proceedings against them in German courts, and it would never do to admit now that the Germans were not to blame in the matter. Therefore, the Prime Minister's statement on the subject was conveniently omitted. He said: "He was not in the least clear that the delay in effecting the arrests of the 'criminals' rested with the Germans." He even went so far as to suggest that the delay in disarmament was after all not some deep laid plot, to gather a great army to attack France, and upset the Treaty, as so many of our critics and public opinion makers would have us believe. He considered that the delay in surrendering arms was not due to any distrust of the Allies, but to the fact that the extreme Right and the extreme Left did not trust each other. This certainly bears out the German Government's contention that the surrender of rifles demanded by the Allies plays straight into the hands of the extremists, and threatens the very existence of the Ministry, which, according to Lloyd George, is anxious to meet the Peace conditions.

Appalling Starvation.

At Spa the Allies' coal demands were modified from the original 36,500,000 tons per annum, to 24,000,000 tons, that is from 3,000,000 to 2,000,000 tons a month, and the Allied representatives were so impressed with the ill-health of the people, due to underfeeding, that, instead of merely crediting the German reparation account with the value of the coal, as had been at first intended, only half is to be so credited, the balance is to be paid in cash, which is to be used to obtain clothing and food for the miners and their families. Lloyd George declared that, "There was no doubt that the population was gravely underfed. The figures relating to infantile mortality were appalling, while investigations bore out the assertion that the miners were unable to turn out the quota of coal because they were underfed." This official statement should finally rout

those who assert that the German plea of starvation was not justified, and was merely put forward to enable them to evade carrying out the Treaty terms. It is significant that only when it directly affects the production of a commodity they require do Allied leaders admit the tragic results wrought in Germany by the continuance of the starvation blockade long after the war had ended.

France and Definite Reparation.

Finality concerning the reparation payments was not reached at Spa, but one gathers from the Prime Minister's utterances that the total amount to be paid, and the methods of payment will be arrived at in consultation with German experts. This is cheering reading if it indeed signifies that the day of dictation to a prostrate foe is passing. It now appears that M. Poincaré resigned from the chairmanship of the Reparations Commission as a protest against the decision of the Supreme Council to fix a definite sum. The former President of France apparently considered that if this were done, one of the most powerful weapons against Germany would be blunted. He preferred the indefinite indemnity, which would enable an ever increasing toll to be levied, thus preventing the rehabilitation of German industry, and ensuring the permanent subjection of the people. It is clear enough that French militarists—with whom the French people must not be confounded—desire to remain in permanent occupation of the rich provinces west of the Rhine. It is provided in the Treaty, however, that, "If before the expiration of the period of fifteen years Germany complies with all undertakings resulting from the present Treaty, the occupying forces will be withdrawn immediately."

A Vital Conference.

Another article says: "In case either during the occupation or after the expiration of the fifteen years referred to above, the Reparation Commission finds that Germany refuses to observe the whole or part of her obligations under the present Treaty, with regard to reparation, the whole or part of the areas specified (the Rhine provinces) will be reoccupied immediately by the Allied and Associated forces." Obviously, if

a definite sum is fixed to cover all reparation payments, and the amount is not fantastic, but within reason, it would be possible for the Germans to regain their occupied provinces possibly before the fifteen years have passed. If no definite sum were fixed, the Allies could always make it impossible for the Germans to clear the debt, and thus compel evacuation. The Treaty also provides that if the conditions of the Treaty are faithfully carried out by Germany, Cologne, and the whole industrial district north of Bonn, which includes Duisberg, and other great towns, is to be evacuated five years after the signing of the Treaty, viz., early in 1925. Five years later Coblenz and another large area is to be evacuated. It is perfectly obvious then that those who desire to keep Germany permanently weak, to have the Rhine as the actual frontier between her and France, will strenuously oppose the definite fixing of the reparation payments, or the slightest modification of the Treaty in Germany's favour. It is already abundantly clear that the policy of France and England is bound to differ, and it is indeed remarkable that Lloyd George has been able to thus far reconcile the divergent policies so successfully. The fixing of the sum to be paid by Germany will, however, emphasise these differences, and the conference on the subject may become even more vital to France than to Germany herself.

A Futile Threat.

Events in Poland are following the anticipated course. That the Poles would collapse before the Russians was always probable; what fewer people foresaw was that the military disaster which has overwhelmed them would place the Allies in the utterly undignified position they now occupy. In our last issue I ventured to suggest that the Russians would take little notice of the protests of the Supreme Council, being perfectly aware that no matter how firmly worded might be Allied notes, they had no weight behind them. Even the threat that unless Trotsky called off his Red Guards England and France would refuse to resume trade with Russia, was a damp squib, which the Soviet Government could afford to ignore. The amazing thing is that Lloyd George and Miller-

and, fully seized of the real position, should have deliberately invited the snub they are now smarting under. One can only imagine that they have become so accustomed to dealing with a country completely prostrate under their heels, that they failed to realise that Russia could defy them with impunity. The Bolsheviks had successfully opposed the Allies, even when their hold on Russia was precarious. Having triumphantly defeated those the Allies employed to overthrow them, was it to be expected that they would be more amenable to Allied demands now than formerly? They have endured the blockade, they have kicked the British forces out of Archangel, have destroyed Koltchak, annihilated Denekine, overwhelmed Yudenitch, and are undisputed masters of Russia. Allied threats are not likely to affect them much when Allied action has so signally failed.

Lenin Snubs the Allies.

Although the notes of the Allies are astonishing documents under the circumstances, they are yet understandable. It was, of course, necessary to make some show of helping the Poles, who had been encouraged to set up a greater Poland for the benefit of France and her Allies. Obviously there was no time to send military help, even if the soldiers to send had been available; but something had to be done to demonstrate that the Supreme Council, which had re-drawn the map of Europe, was the guardian thereof. So Lloyd George and Miller- and put their heads together, and told the Russians to stop their advance, otherwise England and France would not do, what England, at any rate, had half a mind to, that is, would not raise the blockade, would not resume trade relations. They embroidered their note with suggestions that the Soviet Government—which they utterly refused to recognise—should send delegates to London, where they could meet representatives of the Baltic and other border states, and arrange the new frontiers, etc. Was it to be expected that Lenin would do anything other than he was almost invited to do, namely, tell the Allies to mind their own business, and inform them that Russia would settle direct with Poland and the rest? An insulting re-

ply, said our cabled reports. If so, it was certainly asked for.

A Fatal Omission.

The Allies at Paris calmly rearranged the map of Europe, without the slightest reference to Russia. They gave Poland this, Roumania that, and the Baltic States independence. They decided the fate of Constantinople, and handed the Aegean ports over to Greece. They invaded Russia, blockaded her, stopped the import of the medical stores, which would have saved the lives of hundreds of thousands of men and women and children; did their level best, in fact, to destroy Russia. That was when Russia was divided against herself, when there was a chance of perpetuating internecine strife. Now that the Soviet Government has triumphed, has utterly defeated the various enterprises of the Allies, France and England—assuring him that they will not recognise his Ministry—inform Lenin that, if he does not stop thrashing the Poles, they will refuse to trade with Russia! Thrashing those, by-the-way, whom the Allies had equipped with a weapon, which had been used in a desperate attempt to overthrow him and his government. It is really a Gilbert and Sullivan situation, yet it is tragic in the extreme.

Effects of Polish Collapse.

The Polish debacle is going to have far-reaching effects. It will inevitably force the Allies—much regretting—to recognise the Soviet Republican Government. It will completely upset the French scheme of balance of power in Europe, and make a new orientation necessary. It will, in fact, compel notable modifications in the Versailles and St. Germain arrangements, which were come to on the apparent assumption that Russia would be a negligible factor for very many years to come. What the new European settlement will be like depends a great deal upon the Russian attitude, and it is indeed fortunate for the Poles, the Roumanians, the Finns, and the people of the Baltic provinces that they have to reckon with a Soviet Government, and not with the old aggressive militaristic regime, which Koltchak and Denekine would have set up, had they been successful. The Russian Vendeens, who, despite active Allied support, have

failed so signally in their attempts to wrest control from the Soviets, were declared adherents to the policy of a great Russia, were opposed to the sloughing off of whole provinces, would have claimed Constantinople, and have insisted on the resurrection of the agreement, which gave Russia half of Persia. The fact that it was the Allies who had enabled them to win to power would not have induced them to do as the Allies wished, once they had 180,000,000 people solidly behind them. They would, in fact, have proved a Frankenstein the Allies could not have controlled.

Lenin Will Not Follow Our Example.

Now Lenin, the astute and learned leader of the Bolsheviki, about whose atrocious methods and horrid doings the papers have been full for the last couple of years, is not a man who demands his pound of flesh, or would grind his defeated opponents in the dust. He has the Poles in the hollow of his hand. Nothing the Allies can do now could prevent him occupying Warsaw, and compelling the Poles to acknowledge the authority of the Soviet Government at Moscow. He has, in so many words, told Lloyd George and Millerand not to interfere—it is patent that they could not do so, no matter how desperately they wanted to. But, unlike the Germans at Brest-Litovsk, unlike the Allies at Versailles, he has mercy, and halts his victorious armies, although they are in full pursuit of the flying Poles. Instead of dictating the terms of peace at Warsaw, he is true to his ideals, and proposes to recognise the national aspirations of his opponents, who for the last century and more have been vassals of Russia. Of his own free will—the compelling powers of the Allies are negligible so far as he is concerned—he will acquiesce in the establishment of an independent Poland, just as he has allowed the setting up of an independent republic in Esthonia, although with the great forces at his command, he could quite easily have crushed all opposition in the Baltic provinces.

Taking Advantage of a Beaten Foe.

To spare your enemy is looked upon to-day as it was in the middle ages as a sign of weakness; but the Soviet Government has given ample proof that it

is not weak, but strong, far stronger indeed than any of its opponents, quite able to defy the Allies also. Lenin is putting his theories into practice. He is all for a people's settlement, as against a settlement by force. During the war the Allies were loud in their assertions that they were fighting for the right of self-determination for the little peoples, and to make the world safe for democracy. They eagerly adopted Wilson's Fourteen Points, and the whole American nation swung its immense weight behind them. But when they had won, when the Germans had agreed to peace on the Wilson terms, they discovered that a starved and demoralised Germany was incapable of any further resistance, and they promptly threw over the Fourteen Points, and compelled the Germans to sign a peace which is a monument to the doctrine of "spoils to the victor." The Germans, of course, had forced a similar peace on the Russians, and were therefore tarred with the same brush as the Allies; but they, at any rate, had not led their defeated opponents to believe that they would be guided by any other policy; they had not subscribed to any Fourteen Points.

Profession and Action.

The rearrangement of Europe, engineered in Paris, cared only for small peoples which had opposed the Germans. The minorities of Teutons, in newly-created States, were hardly considered at all. Thus Alsace-Lorraine was handed back to France, and the people had no opportunity of saying whether they desired the change or not. Some 5,000,000 German-speaking folk were thrust under Czech yoke in Bohemia. Other millions of Hungarian descent are now ruled over by a Roumanian Government they detest. Instances might be multiplied. Even in the Schleswig districts, where plebiscites were taken, it was arranged, that the whole of the northern part should vote *en bloc*, thus making sure that all of it went to Denmark; but the southern portion had to vote in communes, thus giving small sections a chance of voting themselves into Denmark, without being overwhelmed by the large German majority in the whole area. The Allies professed one thing, and did another. Lenin is apparently going to carry out his profes-

sions. And is he not wise in so doing? Had Campbell-Bannerman listened to the Unionist outcries in England, he would never have given self-government to South Africa, and had he not done so that country would not now be under the British flag. Lenin, it would seem, proposes to make a just peace with Poland. He has constantly offered so to do before, but the Poles, dreaming of re-establishing a Greater Poland, and encouraged by the Allies, would not hearken.

A Russo-Polish Alliance?

Let us suppose that the just peace is made, that Lenin recognises an independent republic of Poland, which includes the great majority of Poles, but does not extend its control over huge districts where other races predominate, is it not reasonable to assume that the people of this new republic would be more kindly disposed to the conqueror, who had treated them liberally, than to France and England, who had failed altogether to help in the hour of desperate need? Is it not likely indeed that Poland would cleave more and more to Russia, and finally, perhaps, join some form of East European United States? Esthonia has already shown that her attitude towards a Russia, not intent on dominating her, is much more kindly than it is towards the Allies, who left her in the lurch when the Red Armies reached her frontier. We do not yet know what success has followed the application of the Bolshevik ideas in Russia, but it is quite obvious that Lenin, in his peace treaties, is far longer sighted than were those statesmen who refused to touch his "blood-stained hand" whilst they were drawing up the Treaty of Versailles!

Fortunately Lenin, not Denekine.

The very ideals of the Bolsheviks prevent them trying to enlarge the borders of Russia at the expense of others. Were this not so the Treaty of Peace with Turkey, which a scared Sultan is to be compelled to sign, might as well be thrown into the wastepaper basket at once. If the Bolsheviks wanted Constantinople, for instance, they could take it, with the help of the Bulgarians. If they desired Armenia, they could get it. If they insisted on getting back Bessarabia, the Roumanians could not prevent

it. Fortunately for the Allies, they have to deal with Lenin, and not with Dene-kine, and their carving up of Turkey is not likely to be interfered with from Moscow. We ought not to forget, by-the-way, that the Tsarist Government was promised Constantinople by the Allies, and was to get a "sphere of interest" in Asia Minor, which embraced the whole of Armenia, and most of the Black Sea coast of Anatolia. The first result of the Polish debacle will be the recognition of the Soviet Government in Russia, but others will follow later.

For the Good of the Arabs.

The people of Syria and Mesopotamia are not welcoming their French and English overlords. In the former place Emir Feisul, relying on the declared policy of the Allies in favour of self-determination, proclaimed himself King of Syria; and in the latter, the Arab risings are so serious that Mr. Winston Churchill stated in Parliament that large numbers of troops were being sent from India to suppress them. General Gourand, the French commander in Syria, is said to have 80 battalions with him, but it is hardly possible that he led 80,000 troops to Damascus. Emir Feisul was made king some months ago, and the French have therefore had time to equip a formidable expedition, but the number of men mentioned certainly seems too large. The unfortunate Emir was presented with an ultimatum requiring him to accept the French mandate over his country, to hand over Aleppo and the railway to the French, and to agree to their occupying strategic positions about Damascus. He refused, and Gourand marched. The result was a foregone conclusion, and the French general, on reaching Damascus, forced the acceptance of his ultimatum, and demanded, in addition, the punishment of those who had opposed the French mandate. One wonders what Colonel Lawrence thinks about the matter. He it was who gathered the force, led by Emir Feisul, which contributed so materially to the British victory in Palestine. In those days the Arabs sought to throw off the Turkish yoke. They do not appear to appreciate the change in masters. The Arabs in Syria and in Mesopotamia have, of course, no hope of prevailing against the troops of France and England, armed

with aeroplanes and the latest death-dealing contrivances, but their hostility will throw a very heavy burden upon the exchequers of the two countries, which the people, demanding economy, will be loath to tolerate. In the case of the new British possession, however, it is probable that India will be saddled with the cost of police work.

Greece Gets Adrianople.

The Greeks have been engaged in conquering the territories handed over to them by the Allies. They have landed an army in Thrace, with the assistance of British war ships, and quickly smashed the resistance of the Turkish force which ventured to oppose them. This force was very much "in the air," as, owing to the Allied occupation of Constantinople and the Straits, it was entirely cut off from the Turkish army in Asia Minor, and could get no war material or supplies from anywhere, owing to the Allied control of the Black Sea, and the Aegean. It did not take the Greeks long to reach Adrianople, which, in the first Balkan war, so long opposed the fierce Bulgarian assaults, and which fell without resistance to Enver's raiding party during the second. The city was given to Bulgaria with the consent of the three *Entente* Powers, at the Treaty of London, in 1912. These, a few months later, meekly acquiesced in the tearing up of this treaty by the Greeks and the Serbs, and the retention of Adrianople by the Turks. In order to persuade Bulgaria to throw in her lot with the Central Powers, Turkey was induced by Germany to agree to cede to her all that territory west of the Maritza River, which Enver had reft from her, when, with her back to the wall, she was fighting Serbia, Greece and Roumania. This area included the railway, and Karagatch, the prosperous suburb of Adrianople, in which the railway station is situated. The concession made the River Maritza the Bulgarian frontier, and practically gave her control of Adrianople. The Bulgarians appear to have withdrawn, under Allied instructions, from those parts of Thrace which Greece has fallen heir to, but the Turks and the majority of the natives refused to acquiesce in the transfer. Greece added greatly to her territory by the Balkan wars, in which she took an active

part, but by this war, during which she remained neutral, she gained far more. She has been rewarded with Adrianople and Smyrna, and other rich towns and districts, advancing her frontier to within sight of Constantinople, the golden city she has so long coveted. Bulgaria, after nearly eight years of continuous war, shrinks in area to about what she was before ever she led the Balkan States to drive the Turk out of Europe.

A Victory for China.

China has come through her civil war in her usually pleasant way—with much noise, and very little bloodshed. The militarist and pro-Japanese generals, under the leadership of Marshal Tuan Chi-jui, soon became convinced that the odds against them were too heavy. They accepted defeat. The three Cabinet Ministers who were associated with Tuan Chi-jui's Anfu Club, have resigned, and peace is restored at Peking. The effect upon China herself is as indicated in the last issue of STEAD'S. The overthrow of Tuan Chi-jui, who was the chief foe of the Southern Constitutionalists, has opened the way for a possible reunion of North and South, and already the Canton Government has held out the hand of friendship to Peking. The international aspect of the recent struggle is interesting. The party which suffered defeat had been popularly regarded as being committed to the support of Japanese interests—not for love of Japan, but for less worthy motives. That party was held responsible for the loan agreements made with Japan, on terms not at all advantageous to China, and also for the military agreement with Japan. This agreement was ostensibly for mutual defence against Bolshevik Russia, but in actual working it gave Japan control of Northern Manchuria, and a more powerful position in Mongolia. Japanese officers are reported to have actually assisted the forces of Tuan Chi-jui.

A Defeat for Japan.

The defeat of Tuan Chi-jui is in some measure a defeat of the imperialists of Japan. It appears to indicate a growing resentment in China against Japanese interference. A few years ago Japanese militarists carried out successfully the policy of fomenting rebellion in Korea,

and gained possession of that country—Britain, by the way, consenting. But in 1913 the Chinese rebels, who had strong support from Japanese soldiers, were badly beaten. The present overthrow of the Japanese-assisted party is even more decisive. It means that Japan must, for the present, give up all hope of inducing a Chinese Government to sign away the rights in Shantung which the Chinese still claim as theirs, the Versailles Treaty notwithstanding. China, however, is not yet out of the wood. She has Japanese forces established throughout Manchuria and Shantung, and even so far in the interior as Hankow. The men in power now at Peking are mostly partisans—Northerners, with little regard for the democratic ideals professed in Canton. A real reunion of North and South will be very difficult. Meantime, the Treasury remains insolvent. Emis-saries have been sent to the Western money-lenders to try to hasten the proposed international loan.

Japanese Progress in Siberia.

Japan has taken possession of the Siberian port of Nikolaevsk, where the massacre of over 200 Japanese was reported to have taken place. She intends to maintain her rule there "until the Siberian people are able to establish a stable government of their own." For the same vague period she is holding the whole of Sakhalin Island, which was divided between Japan and Russia by the Treaty of Portsmouth at the close of the Russo-Japanese war. It is claimed that the Conference of the Allies at Spa agreed to Japan's seizure of these territories. Japan's excuse is like that of every other imperialist power which has occupied foreign territory, has thereby stirred the inhabitants to retaliation, and has made this retaliation the occasion for still further seizures. *The Japan Chronicle*, an English paper, published at Kobe, comments cynically on the affair. If the Japanese had not been making war in Siberia, it points out, the massacre would not have happened, and as the Japanese were in control of all the railways, and kept all local authorities under their thumb, none of these authorities can be blamed. The official accounts of the Japanese Government indicate that the Japanese officers at Nikolaevsk made a rash demand for control of the

town, though their garrison was only a few score strong. In such circumstances what was to be expected, but that the enraged inhabitants would fight the invaders? The Siberians, unfortunately, not only fought the garrison, but, according to the reports, massacred Japanese civilians also. Without attempting to apportion the blame, we have the fact that Japan has increased her empire. The usual proviso is added about holding the territory only till orderly self-government is restored—just as in the case of the British occupation of Egypt, and the Japanese occupation of Korea.

Wobbly Irish Policy.

The cables about Ireland disclose the usual wobbly policy of the British Government. Sometimes it would be ruthless, at other times it would reconcile. Now it will try coercion, again it will experiment at negotiation. It first gloomily forecasts terrible times ahead, next it suggests the possibility of amicable settlement. The Government would not recognise the Soviet Republic in Russia, led by men whose hands were steeped in the blood of Muscovite reactionaries, but now it is being forced so to do. It would not hear for a moment of negotiating with the Sinn Feiners, who had risen in revolt against English rule, and had had the audacity to set up a Government of their own in Ireland, but it is becoming pretty apparent that these "blood-stained patriots" are to be unofficially recognised by Lloyd George. We have, of course, been kept almost entirely in the dark about what was really going on in Ireland, and many must have read with surprise the statement in the *London Times*, cabled over here, that the Sinn Fein Republic was now the *de facto* Government in Ireland. Actually its orders run throughout the entire country, save only in parts of Ulster. Its courts dispense justice, its land transfers are recognised, and its instructions are obeyed. It has obviously established a strong military organisation, and its secret service is in splendid working order. The British Government has hopelessly failed to bring peace to the troubled land. It has drifted along from day to day, without any definite policy, but is gradually taking stronger and stronger military mea-

sures, is heading indeed towards a coercive policy more drastic than has ever before been adopted. At this juncture organised Labour steps in, and there is now some hope of a solution being arrived at.

Labour Takes a Hand.

Labour is rapidly learning its strength in the old countries, where it has been the under dog for so many generations. Lloyd George is well aware that, if British Labour determined to oppose the Government's policy in Ireland, it could absolutely checkmate all attempts at coercion there by refusing to transport troops or munitions, by holding up, if need be, the great public services, railways, coal mines and the like. Therefore, the Prime Minister lends an attentive ear when Labour speaks. At the Trades Union Congress drastic action to compel the Government to stop its military activities in Ireland was decided against, and instead a resolution was adopted, urging settlement by negotiation. A scheme of Home Rule was drawn up, and this was laid before Lloyd George. He described it as "a truncated form of Dominion Home Rule," and declared that it was idle to discuss the matter except with someone "who was able to deliver the goods," which the Trade Union delegation could not do. Its leaders insisted that a bridge between the two extremes of Irish opinion could be found through the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress and the Irish Parliamentary Committee, to which the Prime Minister replied that he was convinced things in Ireland were going to become "very much worse and very much sterner." He apparently said, though, that he was willing to negotiate with Ireland on two conditions—that there should be no republic, and that there should be adequate protection for Ulster. Negotiations of some sort are evidently going on. There has been a halt in Sinn Fein activities, and let us hope also a halt in those domiciliary raids by the military, which have so enraged the Irish people. If they go on, then hostile action by the Sinn Feiners will continue also. At the moment, however, there appears to be a sort of a truce—the first fruits of the Labour effort.

Meanwhile, Sir Hamar Greenwood forecasts still more drastic action, but though that may come, the threat is probably only a move in the manœuvring which accompanies all negotiations of this character.

Ireland and Bohemia.

Lloyd George, Clemenceau, President Wilson, and Orlando—the Big Four—settled the problems of Central Europe, which had defied solution for ages. Why should the settlement they imposed on Bohemia, Hungary, Austria, Poland and the rest, not be applied to Ireland? The principle of majority rule was clearly recognised and acted upon; but the rights of minorities were “safeguarded.” If these safeguards satisfied the Big Four, ought not similar safeguards for minorities in Ireland to satisfy the British Government, which concurred in their adoption? The case of Bohemia is the nearest parallel to Ireland, and a brief examination of the settlement there effected is interesting; 4,250,000 Czechs dwell there, and 2,470,000 Teutons. Under Austrian rule the Teutons controlled the country, although the Czechs, like the Irish, sent many representatives to the Imperial Parliament. Bohemia had a sort of home rule within the Empire, and local affairs were managed by a Diet, which met at Prague. The electoral anomalies which had enabled the Teutons to secure a greater representation therein than their numbers warranted, were, to some extent modified before the outbreak of the Great War. The hostility and differences between the Czechs and the Teutons are even greater than between the Irish and the Ulstermen. Yet the Big Four at Paris solved the problem! They added Moravia and part of Ruthenia to Bohemia, and set up a new State, which they called Czecho-Slovakia. The provisions deemed necessary to “protect the interests of inhabitants of the new State, who differ from the majority of the population in race, language, or religion,” are to be embodied in a treaty between Czecho-Slovakia and the Principle Allied and Associated Powers. The financial obligations of the new State were left to be settled by the Reparations Commission.

Opting Out.

But the arrangement which could best be applied to an Ireland, in which the principle of majority rule—for which the Allies fought—is set up, is that which allows Teutons resident in Bohemia to “opt” for German nationality. The Ulstermen could be given the same right of opting for British nationality. We can alter Article 84 and 85 of the Peace Treaty to cover the case of Ulster as follows: “Ulstermen habitually resident in any of the territories recognised as forming part of Ireland will obtain Irish nationality *ipso facto*, and lose their British nationality. Within a period of two years from the coming into force of the present Treaty, Ulstermen over 18 years of age, habitually resident in Ireland, will be entitled to opt for British nationality. Irishmen who are British nationals, habitually resident in Great Britain, will have a similar right to opt for Irish nationality. Persons who have exercised the above right to opt, must, within the succeeding twelve months, transfer their place of residence to the State for which they have opted. They will be entitled to retain their landed property in the territory of the other State, where they had their place of residence before exercising the right to opt. They may carry with them their movable property of every description. No export or import duties may be imposed upon them in connection with the removal of such property.” Summarised, the solution the Supreme Council applied to all cases in which minorities of different race existed, was to set up majority rule, and allow individuals who did not like it, to pack up their belongings and leave the country. That is a way out of the Irish question which may be commended to the British Government. Actually the Teutons in Bohemia do not intend to quit Bohemia. They find that things under Czech rule are not so bad as they anticipated they would be, and have discovered that a strong minority has considerable power in the Czecho-Slovak Parliament. So it would be, no doubt, in Ireland.

A Daniel Come to Judgment.

It is surprising, and significant, to find Mr. Hughes, of all people in the world,

urging Australia to set up good relations with the United States of America! Something must have scared him badly, or else he must have hearkened to instructions from home. Speaking at Bendigo the Prime Minister said: "We want to do business with America, we realise that her destiny and ours coincide in the Pacific, and we want her to help us in the Pacific. We hold out the hand of friendship to the peaceful nations of the earth, and especially to America." Whatever is coming over him! Perhaps we find the reason of his new amiability towards America in another part of his speech, where he said, "To-day the British Empire is surrounded with enemies." He is perhaps beginning to realise how utterly shortsighted and foolish is the attitude of hostility towards the United States, which unfortunately so constantly shows itself in the public prints, and in private conversation throughout Australia. A more idiotic attitude to take up it would be difficult to imagine. We may say that we dominate the Southern Pacific, but the solid fact is that we don't. That sea is dominated by Japan and the United States. It is high time that those who shiver in their shoes over the "yellow peril" got busy cultivating close and friendly relations with America, instead of abusing her and her people. Mr. Hughes has never pretended to have any love for America, and his strong declaration in favour of befriending her, "because we want her help," should give pause to those who delight in making the establishment of friendly relations difficult.

Where the Fostering is Most Needed.

Mr. Hughes was on less safe ground when he suggested that this friendliness would be fostered if the true sentiment of Australia could be represented to America. That sentiment has too often been anything but kindly. We have at any rate to thank Dr. Mannix for this somewhat belated effort on the part of Mr. Hughes to induce Australians to view America and Americans with kindly instead of with prejudiced and critical eyes. Having admitted the need for friendship, Mr. Hughes might well go a little further, and tell those who still look to him for guidance, to strive to exhibit a friendly feeling towards America, to try and put

the best instead of the worst interpretations on the doings of our cousins across the Pacific. He might, amongst other things, let it be known amongst school teachers and others, who can influence the rising generation, that the inculcation of inimical sentiment towards the United States is even worse than preaching pro-Germanism, for the Germans are powerless to-day, whereas the United States is very strong. The Prime Minister talks of sending a High Commissioner to America to foster good relations; the fostering is not needed at that end—it is required far more urgently at this.

Father Jerger.

By getting Father Jerger out of the country the Commonwealth Government scored a doubtful success. No white crew would leave an Australian port with a man on board who had been refused an open trial, he had therefore to be smuggled on board a vessel with a coloured crew. Labour, as a whole, will not forget that fact. Mr. Morel, on another page, tells of the disastrous consequences which are likely to follow the employment of black troops in Europe. Not the least serious result of the free use of coloured persons in white countries, is the weapon they give the capitalist against the worker. Labour could, of course, have forced the P. and O. Company to hold the *Khyber* at Fremantle, pending negotiations with the Government for the landing of Father Jerger, had it persisted in its refusal to handle the cargoes of P. and O. steamers. By so doing, however, it would have precipitated a situation, which might well have resulted in the company taking off its ships from the Australian route, or making Sydney their only port of call in the Commonwealth. Now that German and Austrian shipping competition has been entirely eliminated, Australia is entirely in the hands of the British shipping ring. It is no doubt good for the British shipping companies, but it is not a particularly good thing for Australians, who have to pay vastly increased freights and fares, because there are no German boats to force these to a fair level.

Anti-Conscriptionists Disloyal.

Mr. Hughes and many people seem to be quite satisfied that Father Jerger de-

served to be deported because a fellow priest complained about his sayings, and members of his congregation declared his sermons to be disloyal. Why, we are told, he actually preached against conscription, and advised his parishioners to vote "No."! This was apparently his greatest crime. Yet those who are convinced that he ought to be deported because he was an active opponent of conscription seem altogether to have forgotten that in this country where we are always guided by the wishes of the majority, Father Jerger was right in advising people to vote "No," because the majority of Australians declared that conscription was wrong. As the majority in a democracy is right, and a minority is wrong, it is not those who preached the right thing—vote "no,"—but those who so passionately urged their congregations to vote "yes," who should be deported, as they were trying to persuade the people to do something which the people themselves were convinced was wrong! We are told that it was all right for laymen to urge individuals to vote "no," but a minister of religion ought not to use his pulpit as a rostrum from which so to do. If that view be correct, we ought not to have tolerated those who so strongly appealed to their hearers in church and chapel to vote "yes." Yet these men are regarded as patriots and heroes, despite the fact that they were wrong, and Father Jerger was right.

Dare Not Allow Investigation.

The fact is, of course, that all the newspapers, and practically all public men wanted the people to do something which the people emphatically declined to do. But newspapers and public men being very articulate, and the mass of the people being dumb, they have been able to make it appear as if the minority were right, and good patriots, whilst the majority were wrong, and traitors. Funny thing, in a so-called democratic country, too! If the Government had no better reason for deporting Father Jerger than this, no wonder it did not dare allow a public investigation! The statements made by the Minister of Defence, in justification of the deportation, certainly suggest that those are right who declare that the evidence on which the majority of the de-

portees were sent away is of the flimsiest nature, and that proper investigation would disclose the fact. Knowing this, say they, the Government dare not agree to open enquiry into a single case.

A Japanese Complaint Against Australia.

A complaint regarding the treatment of Japanese shipping by the Australian authorities at Rabaul (ex-German New Guinea) has received wide publicity in Japan. Mr. Hughes was questioned on the subject in Parliament on July 22nd. He explained that two Japanese vessels had been refused permission to load cargoes at Rabaul for Sydney. The reason was that shipping between these ports was regarded as Australian coastal trade, and the Japanese vessels did not comply with the coastal trade provisions of the Navigation Act. Some of the reports from Japan had alleged that there was discrimination against Japan in favour of the United States, an American vessel having been allowed to load a cargo, but Mr. Hughes pointed out that the American vessel was bound for San Francisco, while the Japanese boats wished to come to an Australian port. Japanese boats had been allowed, "on occasions," said Mr. Hughes, to take copra cargoes from Rabaul to Japan, and even the vessels mentioned in the complaint had been allowed to unload cargoes at Rabaul. They had, in fact, been treated just as any other foreign vessel not complying with the Navigation Act would have been treated. In spite of this explanation, however, the Japanese whose interests are affected are sure to feel aggrieved at the restriction, as they were free to trade between Rabaul and Sydney when the former port was in German possession. The problem is made all the more delicate by the fact that the provisions of the Navigation Act have been so far suspended as to allow British ships carrying Asiatic crews to continue in the coastal trade without paying the Australian wage rates, or otherwise complying with the Act. It will be no easy task for the Prime Minister to satisfy the conflicting claims of the labour unions—which object to the employment of low-waged crews in the coastal trade—certain outlying ports—which would be quite cut off from the world if the

Asiatic-manned ships were withdrawn—and the Japanese shipping companies.

School Teachers Win Increases.

The long agitation for the more adequate remuneration of the State school teachers of Victoria, has at last borne fruit and, in the Public Services Bill, just introduced into Parliament, the so long delayed increases are provided for. STEAD'S has taken some small share in the agitation, and it is very pleasing to find that the suggestion made by Mr. Alfred Hart, in his lucid articles on the subject, which appeared in our pages last year, are to a large extent adopted in the Bill. He urged the entire abolition of the classification system, and the fixing of a minimum salary of £150 per annum, with automatic increments of £10 a year, up to a salary of £280, which would be reached when the teacher was 34 or 35. He pointed out that at present only 240 out of 1886 teachers got as much as £280 a year. The Government's proposal is to do away altogether with class six, and to substantially raise the salaries of men teachers below class four, making the minimum £156 a year, instead of £120, and the maximum £312 instead of £160. Mr. Hart estimated that the minimum increase really needed would cost the Government £250,000. Those which it has granted or proposes to grant will cost £193,982. So there is more to be fought for. But the new scale is a great improvement on the old, and shows that the Government at last realises that those entrusted with the bringing up of the future generation should, at any rate, be paid as well as the manual labourer. Mr. Lawson is to be congratulated on his boldness in daring to commit the State to even such necessary expenditure when his opponents' main battle cry is "economy."

WEST AUSTRALIAN NOTES.

After taking evidence in Perth for a fortnight, the Federal Royal Commission on the Basic Wage, has returned to Melbourne, en route to Hobart. Perusing the testimony given before such bodies, one cannot escape the impression that the evidence on both sides is most carefully prepared and coloured. The facts picked out, and the figures quoted, are, although, of course, not actually faked, so extreme and often irrelevant,

that they hardly represent a true picture of actual conditions. If the Commission does not succeed in getting behind the scenes of the stage, so carefully prepared for it, and bases its findings entirely on the verbal evidence, the awards must be as artificial as are the grounds upon which they rest.

The principal event of the past fortnight was the strike of the Civil Servants and teachers throughout the State, affecting the life of the community in many unsuspected ways: It was as impossible to get properly married as it was to draw a shilling from the State Savings bank; inquests were as unhesitatingly held over as were school lessons; all day long perspiring Ministers of the Crown paid out with their own hands the money due to the wages staff of their departments. After a week's dead-lock, the two camps got into touch; both sides made concessions—Government by conceding the immediate establishment of the Appeal Board, as demanded; the strikers, by foregoing mainly the 33 1-3 per cent. prompt increase on the first £180.

After a fortnight's negotiations, the remaining bone of contention is the strikers' demand for payment of their salaries for the period they were out. The Government refuses to entertain any such thing, even if the men forego, as they have offered, their annual leave. At the time of writing, this point is still being argued. It is not likely to lead to a dead-lock. The Civil Servants know that this claim is not sound enough to find public support if persisted in. They also see that the public are losing patience, and consider that the strikers have got all they could reasonably expect, and ought to be back at work. A large and growing number of them are getting restive, and the disputes committee will hardly risk a disastrous split in the ranks by counselling further prolongation of the struggle. So this unique strike should be settled long before these notes appear in print.

Even if the Mitchell Government comes out of this trial of strength with fair honours, its former prestige has been badly shaken. Early in the dispute it looked, indeed, as if this Government's days were numbered. It is common knowledge that Cabinet was divided on the at-

titude to be observed towards the Civil Servants. No doubt the strike has formed the ground for a lot of political intrigue, and given Mr. Mitchell's opponents their great opportunity. Next month the F. and S. conference will present further rocks. If Mr. Mitchell sails safely between Scilla and Charybdis, and reaches the port of the general elections next March, he will do well.

The insurance collectors are still on strike; the shop assistants have rejected their employers' latest offers, and are evidently preparing for drastic action, unless their own sweeping demands are granted forthwith. There is unrest and dissatisfaction in many other trades, and another epidemic of strikes and bitter disputes is probably before us.

The Prince has been and gone. Most people had been prepared to accord him a loyal, but reserved, reception, for the sickening slobber of Eastern newspaper correspondents had damped the earlier enthusiasm. But when W.A. saw what a simple, nervous and friendly lad this heir to the British throne really is, its hearts and hands went out to him instantly. The festivities in his honour could in no way compare with the splendour of the Eastern functions. Some, indeed, were rather shabby. And the rain, it poured almost incessantly, and entirely impartially on Prince, people, gold-lace and corduroy. It converted the flimsy street decorations into a pathetic mess of dripping, ugly rags. Everybody was quite sure that W.A. would distinguish itself in some outlandish manner. It always does. It knows the value of publicity. So it advertised its splendid railways by an accident to the royal train. Rumour has it that the light South-West line was never fit for such a heavy train. That some engineers said so. That at least two demurred to taking the train over it. And that the Commissioner for Railways overrode all objections. At best it was a hazardous publicity stunt, for which he is not likely to get much thanks. It served the popularity of the Prince far better than that of the Commissioner. The Prince left far sincerer affection behind him than his ill-advised advance agents had prepared. He achieved something really great—he prevailed over the press.

On the recommendation of the new Minister, the Government has decided to quadruple the storage accommodation of the new freezing works at Wyndham, bringing it up to 4000 tons. The original intention to supply the home market with chilled meat has now been abandoned. All the meat is to be frozen and exported. For this trade the larger storage is indispensable. Preference of the people for fresh meat is stated as cause of the change in policy; but one fancies that the interminable labour troubles in the North have far more to do with it. It would never do to place the whole of the metropolitan meat supply at the mercy of the labour bosses at Wyndham.

West Australia is experiencing one of the wettest winters in living memory. The rains were late in coming, but when they did arrive, from across the Indian Ocean, they made it up in volume and persistence. If they don't stop soon, the cereal crops will be endangered. Other produce, notably vegetables, is already ruined by the floods.

NEW ZEALAND NOTES.

A GENERAL WOOS THE LABOUR PARTY.

The New Zealand Labour Party, at its annual conference in Wellington received a deputation from the National Defence League, headed by General Sir A. H. Russell. The picture of the late commander of the New Zealand Division in France coming to plead his cause before a party whose most prominent leaders have served prison sentences as sedition-mongers, conscientious objectors, or revolutionists, was something out of the ordinary. The only published report of the proceedings, unfortunately, is a short official account, apparently issued by the Labour Party. (Is that Party imitating its foes in gagging the press?) However, enough was published to reveal General Russell as a great man—one of the truly great, who can afford to be humble. Having made his appeal for support for his defence policy, he faced a bombardment of questions. What guarantee could he give that the military forces would not be used against the workers in industrial disputes? He did not offer any guarantee, but said he was himself opposed

to such use of the military. (The Defence League has framed its constitution so as to debar its interference in industrial disputes.) An interjector reminded the General that he had himself assisted in the fight against the workers on strike in 1913—the most bitter conflict of the past 20 years in New Zealand. He admitted it. But he had acted, he said, purely as an individual. And he did not intend to do so again. General Russell refused to discuss Irish or Russian affairs. Apparently he was chaffed about the “war to end war.” He said he did not believe war would end war. The only way to end war was to restrict the passions of the individual, and not to provoke those passions that made for war.

WOULD RELEASE ANTI-MILITARISTS.

Members of the conference were interested in the fate of their comrades who had been imprisoned for refusing to submit to conscription—some being still in durance vile. General Russell said he was in favour of their release. Would he advocate that policy publicly? “I will publicly advocate anything I have advocated before this conference,” the general said. And he took the first opportunity of doing so. Addressing the commercial travellers’ organisation the same day, he made an appeal on behalf of the objectors, and did it gracefully. “Although I have been a soldier,” he said, “and although I recognise that where you had violence, you had to use violence to beat it, I am of opinion that no victory can ever ultimately be won by force, and that where that is done, you generally have to fight the battle over again. There is no way of driving out evil except by the exercise of good, and therefore, once victory is achieved, I have no sympathy with, and do not believe personally in the Old World cry of ‘Vae Victis.’ . . . The question was asked me this morning if I thought it wise, or was it a right thing, that conscientious objectors should still be kept in prison now that the war is over. I said ‘No,’ because that was my inward conviction. My opinion is that, now the war is over, conscientious objectors should be released. (Cries of ‘No,

no.’) I quite understand the objection, but that is my own view.”

AGITATION AGAINST ASIATICS.

General Russell’s appeal to Labour—extremist Labour—is not only a fine tactical move—it is more timely than it seems at first glance. He probably knows that the pacifism and internationalism of Labour are not very deep—that Labour shows the colour of its blood whenever it hears the “Yellow Peril” cry. Labour organisations, along with others, have been agitating vigorously against the influx of Asiatics, which has certainly been much accelerated. Over 400 Chinese, and 170 Hindus, arrived at Auckland in the first six months of this year, besides a few Asiatic immigrants at other ports. Besides passing resolutions, white workers have shown their feelings by direct action. A strike in the South Island induced the Government to dismiss Hindus from the public works, and at latest advices no other employment had been found for these. Since then a party of Hindus has received cold entertainment in the Wairarapa district. Refused accommodation at Masterton, they went to Carterton, but were driven out thence by the threats of a crowd of white people. They were compelled to sleep out in the open—and winter weather is sharp in the Wairarapa.

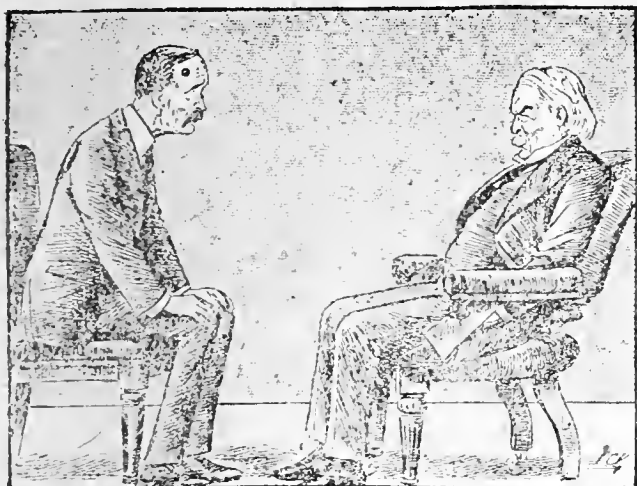
Shipping difficulties continue. The poor progress of New Zealand’s trade with the Pacific Islands is attributed, in the report of the official commission, mainly to lack of shipping. The commission advises the Government, if it cannot make suitable arrangements otherwise, to establish a service of its own.

A crowd of about 2000 people marched to Parliament House in Wellington to protest against the shortage of houses. The Prime Minister told what the Government had done, but the record was hardly imposing—13 houses built, and 124 hoped for at the end of six months! However, a vote of £1,000,000 for housing appears on the new Budget.

HISTORY IN CARICATURE



Oh wud some Power the gifte gie us
To see oursel as ithers see us.—BURNS.



[Westminster Gazette.]

[London.]

IF ONLY—

MR. BONAR LAW: "What on earth shall we do about Ireland? Here's the American House of Representatives making a fuss!"

THE PRIME MINISTER: "If only Ireland were in Asia we might offer the United States a Mandate—that would choke them off!"



[Star.]

[London]

"Take that! and that! you bad boy, you, for forgetting that British rule does NOT rest on force. And now—go to Ireland."

The Irish troubles are naturally the subject of many cartoons in English papers. The one by David Low on this page is excellent.

Neutral and German cartoons on the situation in Europe are much more interesting than the English or American, for they naturally take a very different view of the enforcement of the Treaty terms than do the Allies.

The American papers on the whole have ceased to take the League of Nations seriously. They are full of cartoons dealing with the selection of Presi-



[Dayton News.]

CLANG! CLANK! CLANG!



John Bull.] [London.

THE IRISH DERBY.

JOHN BULL: "Well, I may be wrong, Lloyd, but he doesn't look like a winner to me!"



Westminster Gazette.]

[London.

THE WISE MEN OF GOTHAM.

The longer the Wise Men of Gotham dispute as to how they shall divide the eggs, the less chance there appears to be of the goose ever laying any.

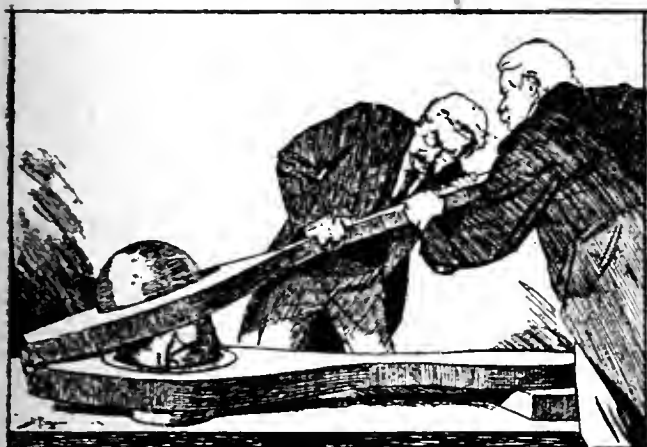


Wiener Caricaturen.]

[Vienna.

A QUANDARY.

FRANCE: "What can I do? If I destroy him he will never pay me, and if I let him live he will finally destroy me."



De Amsterdammer.]

[Amsterdam.

THE GERMAN INDEMNITY FIXED.

LEO GEORGE: "We shall never get more than 120 milliards out of him."



Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.

THE GERMAN ROSE.

But there is not so much honey in it as enemy insects are trying to get out of it.



Union.]

[Walla Walla.

TRY AGAIN.

President Wilson plans to re-submit the League of Nations to the Senate.

suggesting that the resumption of relations with Russia is highly desirable. The Northcliffe papers are on the whole against this course, which is not surprising.

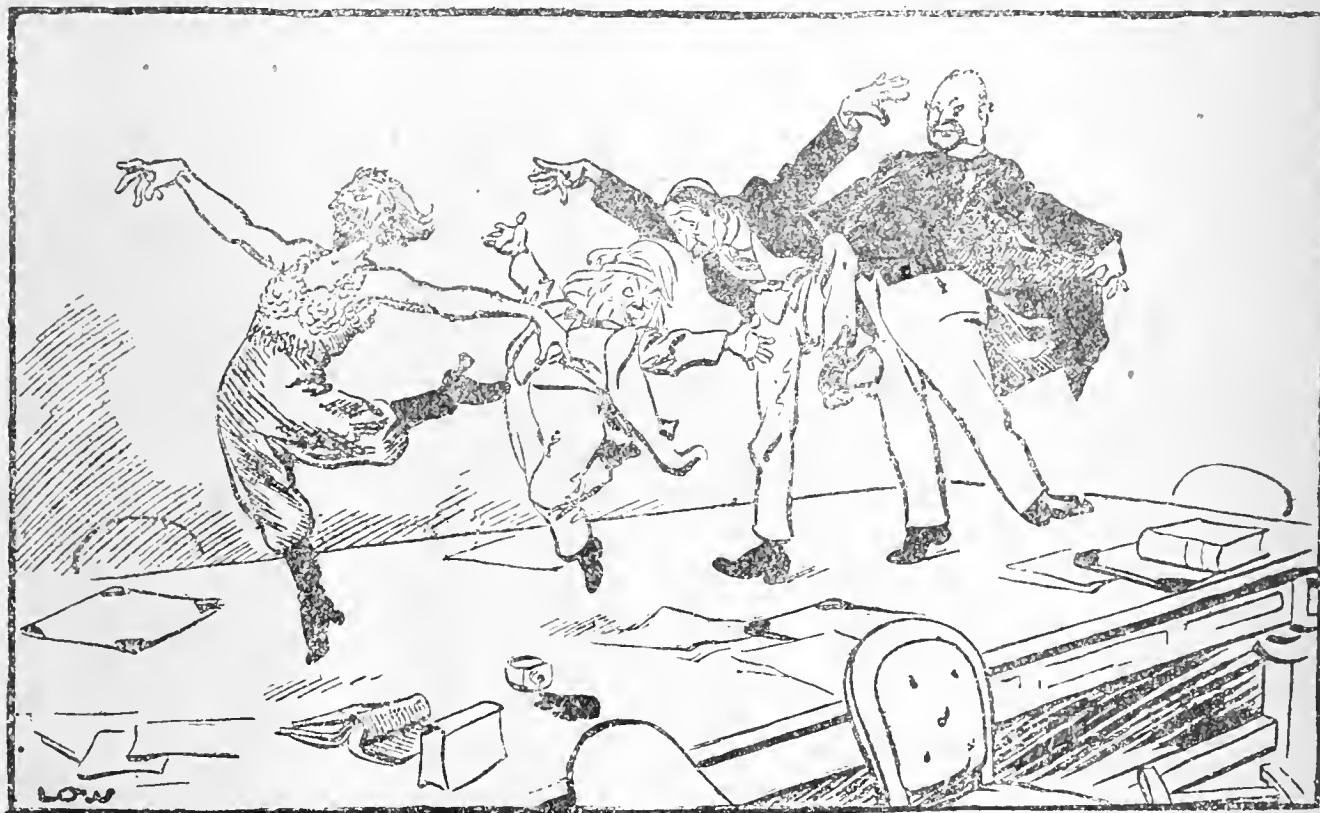


Evening News.]

[London.

THE STRAP-HANGER.

The Italian *l'Asino* has grasped the real reason of the strong propaganda which is being waged against the Bolsheviks throughout the world. The capitalist is naturally scared to death of a movement which proposes to deprive him of his wealth, and the capitalist has the money which enables him to carry



Star.]

THE RUSSIAN CHANCERS.

[London.

DAVID: "Perhaps we'd better join in this little Trade-step to be sociable, but I hope to goodness he doesn't start any jazzing."



[Westminster Gazette.] [London.
LORD ROBERT CECIL AS SIR ISUMBRAS.



[Reynolds's Newspaper.] [London.
CONVERGING LINES.
And the right lines, too!



[Evening News.] [London.
SUB ROSA.
KRASSIN: "Twiggy-vouski?"



[Evening News.] [London.
"Gin a body meet a body coming thro' the rye."

out ambitious propaganda work with the greatest ease. We have seen during the war how simple it is to gull, not only individuals, but whole nations.

The Polish papers now reaching Australia make pathetic reading. They were so sure that their magnificent army would prevail against the Russians.



[The People.] [London.
AN UNDESIRABLE SUITOR.

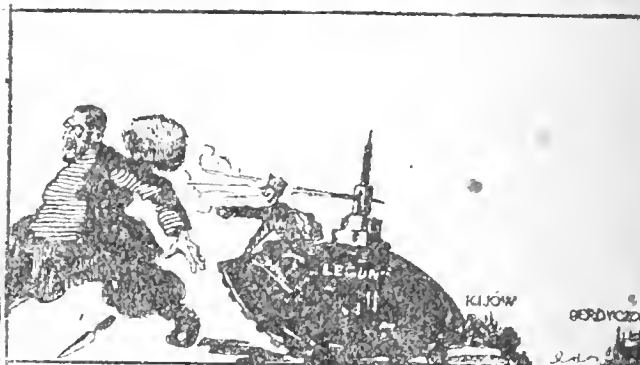
"A little while she strove, and much repented. And whispering, 'I will ne'er consent,' consented."



[L'Asino.]

THE NIGHTMARE.

[Rome.]



[Mucha.]

[Warsaw.]

IN THE UKRAINE.

BOLSHEVIK (to Poland): "Come on, and I'll show you!"

POLAND (to Bolshevik): "Come on; Show me!"

The *Amsterdammer*, dealing with the successes of the Bolsheviks in Russia, suggests that John Bull had better settle the Irish question, and turn his atten-



[De Amsterdammer.]

[Amsterdam.]

THE SPREAD OF BOLSHEVISM.

"Look at the shadow behind you, John Bull!"



John Bull.]

[London.

THE EVERLASTING STAIRS.
Grinding round the "Vicious Circle."
"I keep climbing up, but I never seem any
forrader!
With higher wages things get all the 'hor-
rider'!"



Reynolds's Newspaper]

[London.

THE MAN FOR THE JOB.
(Organised Labour has determined to tackle
the problem of profiteering and high prices, and
a committee has been formed for the purpose.)
It'll take a bit of felling, but he's the right
"feller" to do it.



Star.]

SMOTHERHOOD.

[London.

(Under pressure from capitalist interests, the
proposed tax on war-wealth is to be dropped.)



Union.]

[Walla Walla.

ON THE TREADMILL.

tion to guarding his treasures in other
parts of the world.

High wages, and their direct bearing
on the high cost of living, form the sub-
ject of many cartoons in English and
American papers.



Sun.]

THE REFEREE.

[Pittsburgh.

CONDY'S CRYSTALS.

By
CONRAD H. SAYCE.

JACK Shepherd was nearly dead beat. He had scarcely enough strength left to keep himself in the saddle when his weary horse tripped, as it often did, in the loose sand over which he had been travelling for several days. They had had a drink that morning—the man after a week-old chunk of damper, the horse after wandering about, close hobbled all night looking in vain for a mouthful of feed—and they had jogged on without a pause throughout the whole blazing day, till it was now late in the afternoon. For Jack Shepherd, strongly knit, well-seasoned bushman that he was, was testing his endurance to the utmost. His liberty, which had never been curtailed since his father left him an orphan in his childhood, was at stake. He was a fugitive from Law!

Although he was journeying across desert country which was new to him, his bush-craft, learnt in the stern sure school of experience, had hitherto stood him in good stead, and to-day he had been making towards a gully at the foot of a range of low hills, expecting to find a water-hole there. The line of scraggy trees which marked the gully, was still a couple of miles away, when the man drew rein with sheer amazement. He saw waggon tracks! They came from the east and bore round towards the hills.

Stumbling off his horse, he left it standing listlessly with closed eyes and hanging head, while he read the signs in the sand more fully. The tracks were recent and had come and gone several times. The waggon had been driven by sixteen camels, and, on the trip away from the trees, it had been heavily loaded, for the broad tyres had left a deep clean mark.

At ordinary times, these indications that there were fellow human beings near, would have been hailed with de-

light, but a fugitive assumes, even in the Central Australian desert, that every man's hand is against his, and shuns all contact with men, unless driven by dire necessity. But Shepherd was hard pressed. His first thought, when he saw the tracks, was water, and the next was food, for he had not eaten anything but damper and a raw bird or two for several days, and he had only a small crust left. He gazed up and down the perspective which the wheels had made, debating in his mind which way to go. Then his sharp eyes caught sight of little marks in the sand, about the size of a three-penny piece, such as drops of water would make if they fell and dried immediately. The waggon had evidently gone somewhere in the trees for a load of water. If he followed his original intention and found a water-hole under the range of hills, he could at any rate satisfy one of his cravings without any risk of being seen. So he mounted his horse again.

He did not ride down the waggon track. He was too good a bushman for that. He crossed it and rode on, giving the impression, to anyone that was following his horse, that he had decided to avoid the water-hole where the waggon had been. But as soon as he reached a belt of stones, a mile or so further on, he turned suddenly, and rode along it, leaving no sign of his going, till he cut the wheel marks about three miles below the spot where he had first seen them. Then he kept to the track, confusing his with those of the camels as much as he could.

Presently the movements of the horse under him began to change. The jaded stumbling lope gave place to brisker actions, the poor fly-tormented head lifted and looked up eagerly. Water. Three scraggy crows rose above the trees in front of him, tossed for a few minutes like dead leaves in a wind, gave one or

two hoarse squawks, and then sank again. A carcass.

A dead camel was lying near the water-hole, but Shepherd's horse took no notice of it, a sure sign that the animal was nearly perished. It walked right in the water without giving its rider a chance to get off, till it was up to its knees, and then drank and drank till the saddle-girth cut deeply into its distended body.

The sun was near the western horizon, and it seemed dark under the trees which surrounded the water-hole, so that Shepherd did not know that he was being watched till he heard a voice hailing him. All signs of weariness left him instantly, and the hunted fugitive was alert with suspicion. He turned in the saddle, and the hand farthest away from where the voice had come from, loosened the automatic pistol in its pouch. But he need not have been alarmed. An apparently old man, very tall and big framed, and with a long beard, was standing on the bank at the edge of the trees in full light of the low sun. He was very thin and wore ragged clothes, a wide hat drooped over his face and completely hid those parts of it which were not covered with hair. Shepherd decided that the man must be camped near, for there were no signs of travel about him.

He forced his horse out of the water, dismounted and loosened the girth, and, after taking a drink himself, walked slowly and warily towards the stranger. Now that his thirst was satisfied, the cry of his body for food would not be stifled, and he determined to risk an interview with the old man.

"Good day," he said, as he came up.

"Good day," was the response. "Traveling?"

The man's voice was peculiarly rasping. There was something almost vindictive about it, but Shepherd was not in a position to humour his likes and dislikes. So he answered, "Yes. I left my packs two days ago and came ahead. They must have missed my tracks somewhere. I've run clean out of tucker."

The bearded man made no move toward his camp, though Shepherd could see it clearly now that he had climbed the bank; a little shed built of stained and battered iron, with a shelter of

bark and bushes leaning against one side of it. A camp-oven and kerosene tin were hanging over a fire, and gave evidence of food which was very tantalising to the hungry man. But instead of inviting the newcomer to share his meal, the man scrutinised him from under the brim of his hat for a moment or two before asking, "Which way yer making?"

Bushmen do not pry into one another's business, and Shepherd was quite unprepared for this question. He had never been in this part of Central Australia, but he knew his general direction and that he was in a line with the western limit of the Macdonnells. So he answered at random, "Gile's Soak. I'm meeting a couple of blokes there and we're going west."

"Prospecting?"

"Yes. Gold. . . . Look, could you give me some tucker till my packs come up? I haven't had a bite since daylight!"

"I've got a bit of a store here," said the man. "What yer got?"

Shepherd hated the old man. To try and sell a perishing man a feed was, in his code, the meanest of all mean acts. But he was entirely at the mercy of the storekeeper, so he was forced to amplify the tale he had begun to tell. He felt in his pockets, and, finding nothing, said, "I haven't got 'ny money on me. But I've got a roll of notes in my swag. How about letting me camp here till my boys come up with the plant? . . . I'll make it worth your while."

"There'll be no harm in that," said the other cautiously. "D'yer think yer'll want some rations when yer plant comes along?"

Jack Shepherd promised he'd purchase anything the old man's store could supply. He didn't mind what he said just then, if only it would result in a feed and a chance of escaping as soon as possible. He went off to hobble and bell his horse in spite of the old man's suggestion, "Let my nigger do it." Shepherd was glad he did not take this advice, for, just on the other side of a little hill, he came across a nice patch of dry grass where two working horses were feeding. He went up to them and found that they were in splendid condition and quite easy to catch. They evidently

belonged to his ungracious host, for, on returning to camp, he saw an old buggy with harness and pack-saddles piled into it. It looked as if it hadn't been used for some time.

The old man gave his name as Peter Champy and said that his business was itinerant storekeeping, his customers, at present being a gang of men who were putting down a bore ten miles to the east. They were dependant on the water-hole for their supply, and a camel waggon came there twice a week. This and a lot of complaining gossip reached Shepherd in a querulous voice, to which he did not pay more attention than was necessary, for he was very busy satisfying his hunger. It was scanty fare—boiled salt beef, damper, and tea—but a banquet would not have served his purpose any better, and he ate ravenously, with an eye, not only on his present, but also on his future, needs.

When it seemed necessary for him to contribute to the conversation, he drew on his varied experiences, and told yarns which interested the old man so much that he had apparently quite got over his suspicion before the meal was done, for he produced a bottle half full of red wine. Shepherd had a bushman's weakness for drink of any kind, but when, after the first nobbler, his host urged him to take another, the man's attitude was so different from what it had been previously, that Shepherd grew cautious and refused, giving the excuse that he seldom drank. He noticed, however, that the bottle was put back in one of a set of cupboards made of kerosene cases with the lids hinged by straps of greenhide.

It was well for him that he had not taken a second nobbler, for in ten minutes his head began to feel light, and in half an hour he was so drowsy that he welcomed the suggestion that they should turn in for the night. Champy gave up the bough shelter to his visitor, while he spread a rug for himself inside the iron shed.

This rough little building was nearly filled by a counter which held a betting machine and a pair of scales, while behind it were a few shelves of bottled and tinned rations, some bundles of working clothes, and one or two sacks of flour and sugar. Right away in the darkest corner were the cupboards from which

the old man storekeeper had taken the bottle of wine.

Shepherd fell asleep at once. He was dead tired, and the questionable liquor had completely numbed his senses, so he did not stir when Champy cautiously searched his clothes for anything which might be valuable, either in itself or as information. He even lifted the man's heavy head off the pillow of his rolled-up coat, but found nothing except a crust of very stale damper. Failing to find anything unusual, and not wishing to arouse his guest's suspicion by stealing such a paltry thing as a pistol, he went outside to examine Shepherd's saddle. But he couldn't find it. As a matter of fact, the man had left his saddle at the foot of a tree near the little grass flat where the horses were feeding, in order to save himself trouble in the morning. Finally Champy was obliged to go to bed unsatisfied, for he felt sure that the tale about making for Giles' Soak and having left his plant two days ago was made up for the occasion.

Shepherd was a strong man. Thirty years of life in Central and Northern Australia had toughened every organ in his body, and he was able to endure and recover quickly from hardships which would have knocked out other men. The effect of the nobbler of crook wine wore off long before morning, and he awoke from a troubled sleep with nothing worse than a bad headache and a metallic taste in his mouth. To wake up in strange surroundings was not unusual for him, and if the moon had not been shining that night, he would probably have turned over and gone to sleep again till just before daylight, when the rising of the morning star rouses every cattle man in Australia.

The moon shone in through the entrance of the wurley upon Shepherd's legs and feet. He looked sleepily at the ray of light for a moment or two, and then suddenly sat up. His boots were not there! Following the habit of years, he had left his boots at the bottom of the rug, before he lay down the night before. If he had put them anywhere else, it would have needed a definite act of will, and he would have remembered having done it. It was certain that someone must have moved them. He put

(Continued on page 201.)

MEN OF MARK.

PILSUDSKI: HERO OF POLAND'S FORLORN HOPE.

The utter ruin brought upon new Poland by her untimely invasion of Russia, makes Josef Pilsudski a pathetic figure. A few weeks ago his admirers were comparing him with Garibaldi and Kosciusko. He was to be henceforth the foremost hero of Poland's history. His heroism is none the less for his failure, but he has made a mistake. And history is less kind to the man who makes a mistake than to the one who slaughters millions.

Pilsudski knew that he and the nation that he had reunited were in extreme peril. Poland, he told Sir Thomas Barclay in a recent interview, is "blocked in between the jaws of two colossal Powers which, by closing them, could once more destroy her." All the wits and energies of her statesmen were needed, he said, for the task of construction, but they were distracted by the fight for frontiers. He has frequently stated his conviction of the necessity for peace, but the only peace he would accept was a peace of Polish imperialism. Such terms Russia refused. Pilsudski chose war. Under his leadership Poland walked into the open jaw. The jaw opened wider and then closed.

Pilsudski is a Socialist, an extreme Socialist. It is surprising that he has shown so little inclination to clasp hands with the Soviet rulers of Russia. But the fact is that his Socialism has always been subordinate to his Nationalism. He hated Russia as the oppressor of Poland in the days of the Tsar. Russia at that time was as far removed from Socialism as a nation could well be. The Polish patriot became a Socialist. Now Russia has changed, but Pilsudski is no more friendly to the new Russia than to the old. He has had no hesitation in invoking the aid of the capitalist Powers of the West against his ultra-socialised neighbour. To him she is still Russia, still the supreme enemy of Polish freedom.

Portraits of Pilsudski show him a dour man. Sir T. Barclay says of him in the *English Review*:—

He has rather sad eyes. His drooping eyebrows, drooping moustache, and lank hair, add their touch of melancholy to a face which reminds one of his country, of the vigour of its history compared with its languid scenery . . . a country of extremes and contrasts. And, when I told the general some incidents which amused him, he dropped his melancholy like a cap, and laughed as heartily as a boy.

Pilsudski was born amid the insurrection of 1863. In childhood he knew the terrors of Tsarist repression. At twenty years of age he entered the University of Kharkow to study medicine, but he seems to have had more interest in the curing of social ills. His own aristocratic parentage did not prevent him from becoming a Socialist. His opinions led to his expulsion from the University. Probably the punishment confirmed his hostility to the Russian authorities. In 1887, he was arrested on suspicion of conspiracy against the Tsar. The only evidence against him, it is said, was that his name was found in the notebook of another man arrested on similar suspicion. But that evidence was sufficient to condemn him to a term of five years in a Siberian prison.

Returning from exile in 1892, he settled at Lodz, and joined the newly formed Polish Socialist party. The socialism of this party was of the same brand as Pilsudski's, its primary object was the emancipation of Poland. Pilsudski became the leading spirit in the movement. His propaganda was spread largely through the paper *Robotnik* ("The Workman"), which was issued secretly for years despite the efforts of the Russian police to trace it to its source. At length, in 1900, the plant was discovered in the flat occupied by Pilsudski and his wife. It was they who wrote, edited and printed the paper. That means of agitation was promptly suppressed, but the work was carried on by the secret societies that had been organised in most of the considerable towns and villages.

Pilsudski was imprisoned in Warsaw. He feigned madness and was transferred to a military asylum at Petersburg. A young Polish medical specialist, Dr.

Mazurkiewicz, who belonged to the secret Socialist organisation, learned of his whereabouts and contrived to get an appointment to the asylum staff. One day the doctor disappeared, and Pilsudski with him.

The agitator was not rash enough to settle again in Russia. He took up quarters at Cracow, in Austrian Poland. So intense was his hatred of Russia that he tried to raise a Polish force to fight against her in the Russo-Japanese war. He went to Tokio to offer his help, but the Japanese preferred to rely on their own forces. Pilsudski was convinced that military force was the only means of winning freedom for Poland. On this point the majority of the Socialist party was against him at the time, but he continued to press for military organisation, and in 1908 the first rifle corps of the Polish Socialists was formed in Austria.

The Austrians had no fear of a Polish rising against their authority, and actually encouraged the formation of these rifle corps. Probably Austria hoped for the assistance of Poland's forces in the long-expected war against Russia.

The number of Polish rifle corps increased rapidly. Pilsudski not only fomented the movement in Austria, but made secret incursions into Russian Poland to keep up the courage of the Nationalists there. He needed a war chest, and succeeded in creating it out of voluntary subscriptions. Later he formed the different Polish corps into a united body. So it came about that, at the outbreak of war in 1914, he had already the nucleus of a Polish army.

Even at that time Pilsudski looked to France for help. He did not expect France to enter the war on the side of Russia, so he went to Paris hoping to win support for a Polish insurrection during the fight that was evidently pending between Russia and Austria. The only response to his appeal was stony silence. But his visit to Paris is interesting as showing his outlook. He declared that the imminent war brought the Polish problem back "upon the European chessboard." His country now had "a certain value upon the European political market." Clearly he had no hope that Poland could stand by her own strength. His whole-hearted trust in force of arms was revealed in

the following sentences in one of his statements, published in Paris: "To-day the sword alone weighs in the scale of the destinies of nations. A people that would close its eyes to so obvious a fact would irremediably compromise its future. We must not be that people." Under his leadership Poland took up the sword.

In the campaigns between Austria and Russia Pilsudski, fighting in the Austrian army, won great honours, and in November, 1915, he was raised to the rank of Brigadier-General. The Russians were expelled from Poland, and the Germans took their place.

Pilsudski soon found German direction as irksome as that of Russia. In 1916, when the Brussiloff offensive had begun, the Polish general's troops were placed under the orders of General Bernhardi. They were ordered to the most murderous part of the front. Pilsudski thought this a deliberate attempt to sacrifice his men. He withdrew, risking the penalty for cowardice. It was only by the intervention of the Austrian Commander-in-Chief that he was saved from a firing party. He resigned his command, and his troops were sent to the rear.

He was not long in retirement. Before the year was out he had been made a member of the new Polish Council of State, appointed under the assurance of Austria and Germany, that Poland was to be independent. But again he came into conflict with authority. The leaders of the German and Austrian armies demanded that the Polish troops should take an oath of "military brotherhood" with the Central Powers. As a protest Pilsudski and several others resigned from the Polish Council of State. Pilsudski became especially obnoxious, and was imprisoned in a German fortress. He was not released till the revolution in Germany, which coincided with the end of the war.

Returning to Poland, he was received by the populace with tremendous enthusiasm. He became "Chief of the State," and began the work of internal organisation with a Socialist ministry. But he found that, with Socialist collaborators, he could not win the support of the whole of Poland, much less of the Allies.

Paderewski then appeared on the scene—brought to Dantzic in a British cruiser. After negotiations and some mild clashes between the two factions in the streets of Warsaw, Pilsudski decided on compromise. His Socialism went by the board. Paderewski became Premier. A coalition government was formed, and the three parts of Poland—what had been German, Austrian and Russian Poland—became a united people.

Internal dissension was not the only trouble. The new Government of Pilsudski and Paderewski was soon at war with neighbours all around. Pilsudski was the war leader. His success up to the beginning of this year has been well described by a writer in *The Fortnightly*. Sisley Huddleston:

He fought with ill-shod, ill-clad, ill-nourished troops, in whom he had inspired his own heroic faith; he fought on all the borders of Poland, against the Bolsheviks, against the Germans, against the Ukrainians, against invaders on every side; and where it was not necessary to fight it was necessary to keep guard. . . . His military performance

alone has been prodigious. To-day Poland has a splendid army of 600,000 men.

This writer tells us that Pilsudski has a plan for the confederation of all the small states lying between the Baltic and the Black Sea. His desire for such a league is not so well known as his ambition for a much-expanded Poland, relying upon the support of Western Powers. Mr. Huddleston, however, declares that this is the Polish leader's "great idea," and he claims for it the support of the Allied Powers.

Whatever may be thought of the wisdom of Pilsudski's tactics and diplomacy, his sincerity is beyond question. Like Lenin, he leads the simple life. He disdains useless ceremony, remains poor, devotes himself not only to the large interests of the State, but to the welfare of his soldiers. He is described as temperate, cool, free from vanity, a man with a steel-like exterior. He is implacable; yet he makes himself conciliatory when conciliation is needed in the cause to which he is devoted—the cause of Poland.

NEGRO TROOPS IN GERMANY.

By E. D. MOREL.

During the war the French utilised black troops to a great extent. In this way they were able to largely make good their lack of white man power. Although there was an unwritten law, that in quarrels between European States black troops should not be used, the Allies, in their extremity, were obliged to put every man they could lay their hands on into the trenches. The British experiment of using Indian troops in France was discontinued owing to the fact that the Indians could not stand the climate. They, however, used a great number of coloured men as labourers behind the lines, thus liberating white soldiers for trench work. But whilst one can find plenty of excuses for this utilisation of coloured men in a war against a white race, the continued use of such troops, now that the war is over, is difficult to excuse. It unnecessarily infuriates the Germans, in whose country these troops are quartered, and is bad statesmanship, in view of the fact that both France and Britain have acquired

vast areas in Africa, which must be controlled with very few men. Meetings of protest against the use of black troops in Germany have been held in England, and strong exception to their presence there is being shown, not only in English newspapers, but also in some French journals. Those who are protesting against the manner in which the French continue to use their black soldiers are naturally being attacked as anti-French and pro-German. They are nothing of the sort. They consider that France is wrong in the policy she is pursuing, and they boldly say so. That does not mean that they are at all hostile to France, only to what they regard as a misguided policy. Plenty of prominent Frenchmen share their views.

Mr. E. D. Morel, who suffered much for his outspokenness during the war, and who first came prominently before the public during the earlier part of this century by his exposure of the horrible treatment of rubber gatherers in the Belgian Congo, publishes in *Foreign Af-*

fairs, the verbatim report of a speech he made at the end of April, at one of these protest meetings. He puts the case excellently well, and, for the benefit of our readers, we summarise his speech below. He began by declaring that the use of the African troops in the Rhine provinces was not an isolated incident, but the logical development of a fixed policy, and that this had to be appreciated before the immense gravity of their use could be properly realised:—

That policy affects on the one hand the future of the white race in Europe, and on the other the character of the relations between the white race and the African and Asiatic races in Africa and Asia. Let us then begin by recalling what is so prone to be forgotten.

IMPERIAL POWERS AS AFRICAN GUARDIANS

The Europe which plunged into war five and a-half years ago was not a Europe whose horizon was limited to Europe, whose ambitions, whose interests, and whose rivalries were confined to Europe, whose powers for good or evil were restricted to Europe. The Europe which plunged into war was an imperial Europe, whose subjugating will had imposed itself upon virtually the whole of the Continent of Africa, and a large portion of the Continent of Asia. The outbreak of the Great War found the imperial powers of Europe exercising dominion over hundreds of millions of Africans and Asiatics in every stage of evolution—some purely primitive in type, some highly advanced, possessing an older civilisation than our own, compared with which indeed our civilisation is crude, vulgar and materialistic. Towards all these peoples the imperial powers of Europe claimed to be acting as guardians and trustees—to be governing them, not in the selfish interests of the home State, but in the interests of their own welfare and peaceful development. That—and that alone—the statesmen of imperial Europe declared to be, and knew to be, the only moral justification which can be claimed for Empire, in so far as Empire connotes the government of communities by a State alien to those communities in race and colour.

THE TEST OF SINCERITY.

The supreme test of the sincerity of these professions came with the war. If they had been sincere, the imperial Powers of Europe would have done their utmost to prevent the war from overflowing into Africa and Asia. They might have failed but at least they could have circumscribed the area affected by the war. They would have used every endeavour to prevent the subject peoples of their Empires from becoming involved in passions and quarrels, in which they had no direct concern, and from the misery and suffering incidental thereto. They might not altogether have succeeded. But they would have reduced the participation of those peoples to the smallest possible proportions. Above all, they would have regarded with horror the extension of the war among the primitive, politically helpless peoples of tropical Africa, whom, for the past quarter of a century, they have repeatedly declared it to be their high mission to rescue from barbarism, and among whom hundreds of European missionaries were preaching the gospel of the Prince of Peace. Morality demanded that this should be their policy. Their oft repeated professions of altruistic and disinterested motive demanded it. Statesmanship demanded it no less.

THE SEARCH FOR COLOURED CANNON-FODDER.

The course they actually pursued was the exact opposite. Not only did they take early steps to involve the whole of the Asiatic and African Continents in the war, directly or indirectly, they themselves carried the war into the heart of Africa. They pushed immorality and impolicy to the extent of importing hundreds of thousands of Africans and Asiatics into Europe—to labour behind the lines, to kill and be killed by white men, to die of the white man's climate, and the white man's diseases, to participate in every phase of the white man's delirium, to take back to their countries the lessons they had learned. To the uttermost ends of the earth did these disinterested guardians of the non-white races pursue their search for cannon-fodder. From the slopes of the Himalayas, to the plains of Hindustan, from

the palm groves of the New Hebrides, to the dim recesses of the African forests. They took the Malagasy from his rice fields, the Egyptian *fellah* from his cotton plantations, the Tunisian from his olive woods. The Annamite, the Moor, the Arab, the Negro—black, brown, yellow men, they took them all, drilled them, put uniforms on their backs, thrust rifles in their hands, converted them into killing machines for the glory of God, and to make the world safe for democracy.

AN APPALLING DEATH ROLL.

And they died, these poor folk, died in heaps of unhappiness and consumption; slaughtered, too, in droves on the fields of battle. "The death-wail of the black troops froze the blood of Frenchmen with horror." Philip Gibbs records in that terrible book of his, on the occasion of one of the great French advances. The depopulation in some parts of Africa has been absolutely appalling, and I daresay some of you here to-night recalled when you read the other day the edifying squabbles between French and British statesmen as to whether British or French capitalists should have the lion's share of the oil deposits of Mesopotamia—I daresay some of you recalled the official reports of the ghastly agonies endured by our Indian troops, whose bones still lie bleaching upon the burning sands and arid rocks covering those natural riches so precious to our modern capitalist society. Nothing viler has marked this war than the martyrdom it has inflicted upon native races under the protection of the imperial Powers of Europe. The whole policy is wicked and insane, and it is not only the duty, but the obvious self-interest—as I shall make clear I hope—of the European democracies, whose governments are imperial governments in Africa and Asia, to register their condemnation of it, and to oppose its perpetuation and development under new forms in so-called times of peace. So much for the background of the specific issue with which we are specially concerned to-night, and to which I shall now pass.

THE FRENCH PEOPLE NOT RESPONSIBLE.

In approaching it I am going first of all to clear the ground of one of three criticisms, which I observe are being advanced in certain quarters, all three in-

evitable, I suppose, but all three equally without foundation. Let me repudiate then, in advance, any attempt which may be made to distort any words of mine into an attack upon France. I intend to deal faithfully with a policy I condemn, and in so far as that policy may be condemned, those who in France are responsible for it, are affected thereby. *But it would be a great mistake, and great injustice to make the French people, and especially the French working classes, responsible for that policy. They are not.* They themselves are threatened by it—formidably so. Hardly a day passes that one of the most widely read of French working-class papers does not stigmatise that policy as it deserves, and in language stronger than I allow myself to use. And now for the facts about the particular issue before us. They fall naturally into two parts. There is the African side. There is the European side. It is essential that we should understand both.

MILITARISING THE AFRICAN TROPICS.

On the African side the facts are these. France is mistress in Africa of a territory some 5,000,000 square miles in extent, an area considerably larger than the whole of Europe. I beg you will bear that in mind. Of that area 2,000,000 square miles—more than half the size of Europe—is situated in the tropical and sub-tropical western part of the Continent. These regions are inhabited by some 25,000,000 negroes, many of them in a quite primitive stage of human development, with all the virtues—and they are many—and with all the rude savagery, using the term in no condemnatory sense, proper to uncivilised and semi-civilised man; especially marked, of course, in the forest areas which cover a considerable part of the country. Some three years before the war a scheme was set on foot to raise regiments by voluntary engagement from these tribes for use outside West Africa—wherever French military requirements might suggest. In 1912 a limited form of conscription was introduced. The scheme developed rapidly. In the course of 1912 and 1913 several battalions of these recruits were shipped from West Africa to be stationed in Morocco and Algeria. Upon the outbreak of war

equally among the first to be sent to France. With the advent of the war, recruiting was greatly intensified. It was extended even to the French Congo, whose vast forests contain the most primitive of all the negro races inhabiting French West Africa. Soon tens of thousands of these negro troops were pouring into Europe. From the declaration of war to the end of 1915, 40,000 were so shipped, and many more secured. In 1916, 60,000 were shipped.

REVIVAL OF THE SLAVE TRADE.

How were these men often procured? By coercion and violence; by raids and kidnapping; by compelling the unfortunate chiefs of the tribes to furnish a percentage of the men of the tribe; by punishing them if they did not; by all the methods which characterised the old slave trade. What was the result? The tribes rose in revolt. For six months the whole great Niger region was the scene of sanguinary fighting. The acting-Governor-General described it as a "conflagration." He was opposed to the policy. He criticised it severely. He was removed. The Governor-General who succeeded him declined to carry out the policy. He resigned. He threw up his appointment of £4000 a year. He went back to the army—back to the front—and was killed. When visited by a friend of mine, and of his, in hospital, when suffering from his first wounds, he said: "Not only is the colony being drained of its able-bodied men, but the whole population is being taught to believe that the slave trade has begun again." For a time recruiting lagged, until repression had done its work. Then it began again. And in 1918 70,000 more of these unfortunate men were shipped to Europe. To cut a long story short, France used over 80,000 of these negro troops in the fighting line during the war, and when the Armistice was declared, 136,000 of them were under arms on the European fronts and in depots in West Africa and in North Africa. These figures do not, of course, include the numbers raised by conscription in North Africa, and in the French Island of Madagascar.

A PERMANENT POLICY.

Now, whatever might be said about this policy during the war, one would have imagined that the terrible chapter

of wrong would have closed with the war. It is not so, and the fact that it is not so, having regard to the condition of Europe to-day, to the character of the so-called Peace Treaty, and to the notorious tendencies of the militarist influences at present controlling French policy, is a fact of sinister significance. Not only is this policy not abandoned, it is being extended, and made permanent. In July last, six months after the Armistice, a decree was issued imposing obligatory military service upon all adult males throughout the whole enormous area of French West Africa. Last December that decree was made applicable to Madagascar. Particulars have been published as to the number of recruits which must be provided annually by the various dependencies into which the French territory in Africa is divided. It is estimated that as from 1922, when the new system will be in complete working order, French West Africa will furnish a permanent negro army of 100,000 men. The term of service is for three years, and the technical French press informs us that the conscripts will spend two out of the three years in France—i.e., in Europe. To this total must be added another 100,000 who, it is reckoned, will be yielded by Madagascar, the French Somali coast, and the old French West Indian Islands—which will give a force of 200,000 Africans, mostly negroes, for permanent service in Europe, without counting, of course, the contingents raised by conscription in French North Africa—Algeria, Tunis and Morocco. What the last figures may be I don't know. Broadly speaking, what the world is confronted with is this—that the whole of French Africa, an area larger than Europe, is being militarised, and that the intention appears to be to maintain as part of the French war establishments an African army of no fewer than a quarter of a million men on European soil. And this, I do not hesitate to say, is, from whatever side it is examined, one of the gravest events in contemporary history. So much for the African side of the question. Now for the European side.

THE OCCUPATION OF GERMAN TOWNS.

As we have seen, the coming of the Armistice found large numbers of these African troops on the fronts. Under

Article 420 of the Peace Treaty, all Germany west of the Rhine is to be occupied for fifteen years—with certain provisos as to the shortening of the term—as a "guarantee for the Treaty's execution." The French Government proceeded to move troops into the portion of the territory which fell to its share to occupy—using for that purpose masses of these conscript African levies. In making use of these levies for that purpose the French militarists committed not only a great act of impolicy, but a great outrage. It was a fitting sequel to a Treaty the terms of which put back the hands of the clock 2000 years. It has been, and is being, attended by the inevitable consequences. With the occupation of these Palatinate towns by the French a strict censorship was established; an iron military rule was introduced. Indeed it was only the other day when, as the result of incidents with which we are familiar, the French extended their occupation to Frankfort and other towns on the right bank of the Rhine, that the public at large became aware that France was maintaining African regiments on the Rhine at all. It appears that they have since been withdrawn from Frankfort. But there is nowhere any suggestion that they have been withdrawn, or that there is any intention of withdrawing them, from the area on the left bank occupied under the Treaty. According to my information there are now 38,000 French African troops in Germany.

INEVITABLE RESULTS.

I say the inevitable consequences have occurred. What would you have? It is no use mincing words. You cannot quarter tens of thousands of Africans, big, powerful, muscular men, with fierce, strong, natural passions—you cannot quarter these men, without their women folk, upon a European countryside without subjecting thousands of European women to willing, or unwilling, sexual intercourse with them. That is the bald fact which no ingenuity can set aside, or special pleading remove. You have got to make provision for such intercourse, and you have got to make the municipal authorities help you. You cannot help yourself. The essential iniquity is not that the French military authorities should have stuck up brothels

for their black legionaries in some of the most ancient seats of European civilisation. The iniquity is that, being perfectly well aware of the concomitants of their policy, they should deliberately have adopted that policy. The iniquity is that they were perfectly aware, not only of this side of the business, but that they were exposing the female population of the countryside occupied by these troops, to insult and to outrage. The iniquity is that they should deliberately have added to the humiliation and hardships incidental to a military occupation, a terror which cannot be adequately described.

WHAT IS HAPPENING BEHIND THE VEIL?

For many obvious reasons not one tithe of what is going on in the French occupied zone can reach the outer world. There is a natural shrinking from publishing experiences of this kind broadcast. There is the censorship. There is the natural unwillingness on the part of the Allied Press to deal with a subject embarrassing from every point of view. But what we have to concentrate on is not the pitiable details, but the *broad fact* itself—and the vistas which this outrage opens up in Europe and in Africa.

IS IT "OUR BUSINESS"?

I desire to meet and to handle two other lines of criticism as to the justification and reasonableness of the protest we are making. It is said: "Yes, all this is abominable. We entirely disapprove of it. But after all it is not *our* business." My answer to that is that it is very much our business, and for many cogent reasons. The hope of constructing a decent international policy, and a decent international mind depends in an enormous degree upon European womanhood, and the way in which European womanhood uses the increased political powers which it is acquiring—and a subject of this kind seems to me to be one upon which European womanhood can, and ought to, speak with one voice. But apart from this, there are a variety of reasons why we are justified in looking upon this matter as our business. Perhaps I may be allowed to mention one or two of them. The occupation of Germany west of the Rhine for a number of years is part and parcel of a Treaty

for which our Government is responsible, and it is preposterous to suggest that we are not entitled to make friendly representations to France as to the conditions in which that occupation shall be carried out. That is one reason.

SOWING DRAGON'S TEETH.

Another reason is this. The people of this country are asked to pledge themselves and their children by Treaty to defend France, for an apparently unlimited period, against German aggression—that word of many interpretations. Bluntly, what is meant by that is this, that we are to pledge ourselves to fight on the side of France, if in the years to come France and Germany go to war again. But this policy, which the French militarists are pursuing in quartering African troops in German towns and villages, coming on the top of everything else, is going to make, if it is persisted in, another Franco-German war absolutely inevitable. Surely we have enough imagination to understand what our feelings would be if the West Riding of Yorkshire, or Wales, or the West Country, or Sydney or Melbourne, were occupied by German African troops from German East Africa—with the prospect of 15 years of such occupation! This action of the French militarists—contrary, let us insist upon this, to the wishes of the French working classes, who appear to be against the occupation of German territory altogether—is sowing seeds of furious and legitimate resentment. Are we really going to be mad and wicked enough to allow our children's lives to be sacrificed presently as an offering upon the altar of French militarism, to allow them to be mortgaged in advance to a policy which has neither vision, nor a sense of perspective, nor one solitary instinct of magnanimity? Another side of this problem must appeal to the solidarity of British labour, viz., the possible and probable use of these African troops to dragoon French labour into submission. If that policy is tried, and succeeds in France . . . well, it will not be long before it is tried elsewhere. British labour cannot remain indifferent to the issue.

BRITISH RESPONSIBILITIES IN AFRICA.

And there is another reason of a

totally different kind, but equally valid, why this matter is our business. Our British dependencies in West Africa run parallel for many hundreds of miles with the French. Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Nigeria are surrounded on all their land side by French territory. They appear as islands in a vast sea of French territory—although they are islands which exceed in size France, Italy, and the former German Empire combined. What the French do in their territory necessarily affects us intimately, the more so as the frontiers are quite arbitrary and artificial. The French are fast militarising the tribes and communities under their rule. Their proclaimed purpose is to make every African adult in their territory into a soldier, trained in all the arts of modern warfare. They are doing so. They have trained hundreds of thousands already. And here are our dependencies—Nigeria, for instance, the most thickly populated and flourishing portion of the African tropics, our largest tropical dependency after India—set in the midst of this conscripted French Africa, with nothing more than a small semi-military police force, a couple of thousand strong, to maintain internal order. We are going to be faced—indeed we are faced to-day—as a result of French policy, with this dilemma. Either we shall be driven to conscript the peoples under our protection, which means resistance, disturbance and bloodshed—besides being a suicidal policy from what may be termed the standpoint of imperial statesmanship in Africa, which the French would see for themselves if they were not at present blind to the dangers of what they are doing; or, we shall have to leave these industrious communities defenceless in the event of future trouble with France—which God forbid; and defenceless in the more probable, in my humble opinion, the very likely contingency, of a huge revolt of native soldiery in the French possessions which would spread havoc far and wide in Africa, and not only ruin Nigeria for generations, but wreck the best bit of administrative work which exists in tropical Africa to-day. The French militarists are not only creating a volcano for themselves—they are creating one for us!

RACIAL PREJUDICE.

And now for the other line of criticism—the suggestion that we are stirring up racial prejudice, by condemning a policy which many leading Frenchmen call a crime. No action it is possible for the wit of man to conceive could be more calculated to intensify and aggravate racial antipathy and all the evils, injustices, and cruelties, to which it gives rise, than this policy of bringing African levies into the heart of Europe, and stationing them permanently in Europe. It is not only the immediate, but the future, effects which must be considered. It is not merely that the very problem which haunts the domestic politics of the United States, and gives rise from time to time to those savage acts which every humane American condemns, is being artificially created, in aggravated form, in Europe. It is the aftermath of intensified race prejudice in Africa, which is so terrible to contemplate. With the exception of Mediterranean Africa, all Africa—and especially tropical Africa—is held to-day, governed to-day, by a mere handful of white men, comparatively speaking: governed partly by white man's superior armament and power of organisation, partly by a combination of intellectual and spiritual forces, which you may call character, or prestige, as you will.

FRAMED TO KILL WHITE MEN.

A severe shock has already been administered to the foundations of this rule through the European Governments importing the war into Africa, and giving to the native population the spectacle of a governing white element destroying itself—with native help. *On top of that, into the hands of hundreds of thousands of these governed peoples one of the Imperial Powers of Europe is placing weapons of precision, training them how to use them, teaching them military discipline and combination.* They have been trained to kill white men in Europe. They have been pitted against the white man's great war machine; instructed in its mechanism. Gambling politicians and professional militarists in Europe may play with this fire. They are safe enough. But the European administrator, settler, merchant, in Africa stands

to be burnt by it. And he knows it. Now, fear is never absent from the white ruler in Africa—the fear which comes of the realisation of enormous numerical odds. That fear is responsible for a very large proportion of the cruelties which have stained the annals of the white man in his dealings with the black. That fear, the policy of the French militarists will emphasise a thousandfold. The tendency throughout French Africa, the tendency in every part of Africa—between whose peoples there is a strange and electric faculty for intercommunication, and the rapid transmission of news—the tendency in every part of Africa will be, under the influence of this fear, to harden and harshen the bonds of white rule—to quicken prejudice, and suspicion born of fear, to emphasise what is callous and cruel in white rule.

A COMING WAR OF EXTERMINATION.

And what of the corresponding effect in the militarised African, who has shot and bayoneted white men in Europe, who has had sexual intercourse with white women in Europe? Contempt, and a great awakening to the fact that the white man is, after all, rather a poor type—and that the key to his power is just that lethal instrument which he has obligingly taught the black man to use, and to use in combination. So, on one side, an intensification of fear, aggravating race prejudice, begetting harshness and cruelty. On the other, contempt, loss of respect, destruction of a legend of superiority, the dawning of the question: Why, after all, do we suffer these people? These two emotions, played upon in a hundred subtle ways, combining together to make a bloody chaos of Africa. I will tell you what lies at the end of that road—wars of extermination between the two races, from one end of the African continent to the other.

Those who condemn this ignoble policy are doing the greatest service that can be rendered to men of African race. So far from being inspired by race prejudice, they will contribute to prevent it from assuming a more virulent and deadly form than it has attained in the long story of contact between the two races.



The Canadian claim against Germany is £374,000,000.

An Airco 16 biplane recently accomplished the aerial journey between Paris and London in one hour, 28 minutes.

Peace was signed between Germany and Lettland in May last.

Last year, 10,281 people died of influenza in Paris, 3018 of these were men.

The boycott declared by the trade unions against Hungary was recently joined by the South African Industrial Federation.

The collection of funds for the relief of the starving peoples of Europe has been authorised by the New Zealand Government.

Swedish firms have contracted to send agricultural machinery to Russia to the value of £4,000,000. Payment is to be made in gold.

The new taxation recently approved by the French Parliament is estimated to bring in 9,500,000,000 francs, nominally £380,000,000.

The opening of the new tunnel through the Pyrenees has reduced the journey from Paris to Barcelona from 21 to 15 hours.

Before the war, Japan supplied 2½ per cent. of India's total imports. Last year no less than 20 per cent. of these imports came from Japan.

A delegation from Prague went to Petrograd recently in order to try to arrange trade relations between Russia and Czecho-Slovakia.

The new minor planet which was recently discovered by a Spanish astronomer, at the Barcelona observatory, is to be named Alfonsina.

Supervision of private telegrams to foreign countries, "in the interests of taxation and on economic grounds," has been re-introduced in Germany.

The oil-electric locomotives recently tried on the French Nord railway proved so successful that it is proposed to make more general use of them in France.

The French aviator, Frondal, in an exhibition near Paris, recently, looped the loop 962 times in 3 hours, 52 minutes, 10 seconds. This is claimed as a record.

During April it is said that more than 800 men deserted from the American Navy, and the Government is finding great difficulty in securing an adequate flow of recruits.

The recent elections for the Czecho-Slovak Senate resulted in 103 Czechs being returned, 37 Germans and three Magyars. Of the Senators, 68 were Socialists and 76 Moderates.

The sale of Peace Stamps in Denmark realised 1,932,000 francs. This sum was handed to the French Minister in Copenhagen to be used in the reconstruction of the Cathedral at Rheims.

The Russian Red Cross has established a special bureau to assist returning Russians and strangers in Russia. This bureau is to inform itself concerning all foreigners residing in Russia.

M. Rousseau, the well-known sculptor, has designed a monument, which Belgian refugees are erecting in London as a token of gratitude to Great Britain for her hospitality to them during the Great War.

The American House of Representatives decided recently that 200,000 acres of land in the Hawaiian Islands should

be set aside for homestead purposes, and made available for native Hawaiians only.

The famous artificial silk mills at Turbize, Belgium, have resumed operations to their former full capacity of 15,000 pounds a day. These mills were almost completely destroyed by the Germans in 1914.

A Government sugar factory, to cost £350,000, capable of handling 10,000 tons of sugar, is to be erected in Jamaica. Profits are to be divided between the cane growers and the Government.

As a protest against the high cost of living, 15 members of the Ontario Parliament have pledged themselves to wear overalls, and have signed an undertaking to emancipate themselves from the yoke of tailordom.

A conference between the Senate and the House of Representatives in Washington recently decided that the Naval Budget for next year should be fixed at 436,000,000 dollars (about £110,000,000 at present exchange).

Six hundred and forty of the railway men who were discharged recently from the French Midi Railways, in connection with the railway strike, have applied for passports to Russia, where they propose to join the Russian railways.

Bodies of American soldiers, who died of wounds in England in the Bath War Hospital, were recently exhumed, and placed in special caskets for conveyance across the Atlantic for reinterment in the United States.

In the Church of Scotland Assembly, held in Edinburgh recently, a recommendation to the people to vote for the "non-licence" provision of the Scotch Temperance Act, was approved by 111 votes to 97. Is Scotland going dry?

A group has been formed in the Czechoslovak Parliament whose avowed object is to obtain autonomy for the Germans in the new Republic. The desire on the part of the Germans in Bohemia to escape from Czech rule is already very strong.

They have a way with profiteers in Hungary which might be commended to the attention of Mr. Hughes. If found guilty of profiteering the culprit is sentenced to appear in the streets as a sand-

wichman, displaying the legend: "I am a profiteer."

The Italian Senate decided recently that the salary of Senators was to be increased to 100 lire a day whilst the Senate was sitting, but that no Senator should receive more than 10,000 lire a year. At the present exchange, 10,000 lire is £130.

A bill, recently introduced into the French Parliament, provides for the requisitioning of all home-grown corn for a period of three years, at a fixed minimum price. It also provides for the establishment of a Government monopoly of all corn imports from abroad.

The Zionist Executive Committee has resolved to raise £25,000,000, in order to enable the organisation to start its work in Palestine on a large scale. Jews throughout the world are to be asked to impose upon themselves a tax of 10 per cent., according to the old Maascher (Tithe).

The business of the New Zealand State Fire Insurance office is growing. The amount underwritten last year was £26,160,000. This was higher than the 1918 total by £2,200,000. The net profit of £37,043 was also the highest on record, the best obtained previously being the 1918 total of £28,472.

If the French people will be satisfied with bread somewhat below the usual standard, but much better than they have been accustomed to recently, they will not require to import any wheat at all from abroad during the next twelve months, as this year's crop is expected to reach 75,000,000 quintals.

The French Government recently instituted a decoration for mothers of large families. Mothers of ten children receive a gold medal, those of eight a silver medal, and those of five a bronze medal. The recipients have the right to wear a ribbon for the bronze, and rosettes for the gold and silver medals.

The late Charles Garvice left over £70,000. Far more famous authors have left much less. Charles Dickens, however, left £80,000, and Miss Braddon £68,000. Edwin Arnold left £6400, Clement Scott £4480, the Poet Laureate, Alfred Austin, £2098, Julia Frankau (known as "Frank Danby") left £34,000.

The Deutsche-Allegmeine Zeitung was recently purchased by Hugo Stinnes, the millionaire iron master of Essen and Dortmund. Herr Stinnes has purchased many newspapers recently, amongst the best-known being *The Lokal Anzeiger*, which has the greatest circulation of any newspaper in Germany, and the illustrated weekly, *De Woche*.

The Roumanian police recently arrested forty-one Bolsheviki from America on the s.s. *Titanic*. They found them to be in possession of an enormous number of propaganda leaflets printed in Roumanian. The men were detained at Galatz pending the decision of the Roumanian Government as to what was to be done with them.

THE JEWS IN PALESTINE.

The definite assumption of the mandate for Palestine by the British Government should mark the beginning of a new era in that country. The Right Hon. Herbert Samuel, the brilliant Liberal statesman, who has been appointed Commissioner, is, of course, a Jew, and under his direction, it is to be expected that a great stream of Jews from the Eastern parts of Europe will soon reach the Land of Promise. Mr. Samuel was the bearer of a special message from King George, which he read before a great assemblage at Jerusalem. This message very carefully set out that the establishment of a national home for the Jewish people in Palestine would in no wise affect the civil or religious rites or diminish the prosperity of the general population.

At a great Zionists' demonstration, held in London, one of the chief speakers was Mr. Arthur Balfour, who made the famous declaration in 1917 concerning the setting up of a Jewish state in Palestine. It is this declaration on which the Jews relied during the war, and they urge that its spirit shall guide the new Commissioner. Dr. Redcliffe N. Salaman, writing in *The Contemporary Review* on the subject of Jewish colonisation in Palestine, insists that only if England accepts the mandate for Palestine can the dream and desire of the Jews be realised, and he finds fault with the British Government for the long delay in taking charge of the administration. Had Britain assumed the mandate immediately after the Armistice, and carried out its promise contained in the Balfour declaration, there would, he says, have been no opposition on the part of the Arabs. In fact, the majority of these would have approved and appreciated the step.

There has been very little hostility between the colonists and the Arabs, so little as to be negligible in comparison to the sum of the good relations that have existed between them. The Arabs who work in Jewish colonies earn two and three times as much as they did before, and have learnt from the Jews the elements of Western civilisation. Even to-day, in Lower Galilee, the Arabs send their children to a non-sectarian school, where the colonists give a good general education in Hebrew. The Jew and Arab would get on perfectly well if the politicians would but leave them alone. There is more than enough room for both. The Arab is utterly incapable of developing the country alone. The Jew is the only one who will bring capital, and the Arab knows it; even as one writes comes information of letters from village chiefs all over the country deprecating the pretensions of Feisal, and praying for Jewish immigration.

But the military administration which has held sway during the long interval since the war ended, has truckled to the noisy Pan-Arabic party for the sake of peace and quiet. It has taken away what arms the Jewish police possessed, but has allowed wholesale pilfering of arms and ammunition by the Arabs. It has received every Arab Nationalist administration with courtesy, but has cold-shouldered and obstructed Jewish expansion. Its actions have mystified the only class in Palestine who stand for progress, and whose members are loyal in heart and soul to Britain. In return for alienating a real friend, the military administration has lost prestige with the Arab leaders, who under its very eyes have joined hands with the Young Turk.

Dr. Salaman emphasises the fact that the Jews who, before the war, settled in special colonies in Palestine, went there not to make money, but for the realisation of an ideal. The crying need to-day, if the anticipated immigration of Jews is to be successful, is hard work, intelligence and capital. Two thousand

years of war and neglect have reduced the country from the position of a land which literally flowed with milk and honey, to one whose fertility has in all parts been decreased; in some, actually lost. He gives a general survey of the agricultural possibilities of the country, and shows that only eight per cent. of the whole of Palestine to-day is cultivated. Of this eight per cent., one is being worked by the 13,000 Jewish colonists. The Moslem and Christian Arabs, who number about 500,000, till the remaining seven per cent., and yet the whole country is in their possession, whereas the Jews are confined to small colonies. He scouts the idea that the Jew is unsuited to agricultural employment.

We have examples to-day of the Jew successfully tilling the land, both in the capacity of farmer and workman, not only in Palestine, but in Europe. In South Russia and the Caucasus for many generations Jews have tilled the soil, and lived the full life of peasants.

Before the war the Jewish population of Palestine amounted to some 100,000. Half of these were engaged in industry and commerce, whilst the other half devoted their whole time to a study of the Scriptures and Talmud, being supported by funds collected in Europe for that purpose. This source of supply, by the way, came to a sudden end when the war broke out, and many thousands of Jews as a result died of starvation. Thirteen thousand of the Jews live in special agricultural colonies. Many of these had been started before Dr. Herzl launched the scheme of the Jewish State in Palestine. Zionism soon became a new constructive force, and all the Jews already in Palestine speedily became followers of Herzl.

The old system of philanthropic control by Baron Edmond de Rothschild was felt to be out of keeping with the new spirit of freedom and of nationality, and was unhesitatingly scrapped by the Baron, and a new *regime* was entered upon, in which the Jewish Colonisation Association became a partner, its object being to make the colonists independent, by giving them every legitimate opportunity to improve their methods, and to allow them to clear themselves from debt—a process which was working with excellent results till the war intervened. On the other hand, Zionism has conducted a constructive programme of its own. A Jewish bank—the Anglo-Palestine Bank—was founded to subsidise Jewish effort, and a Land Develop-

ment Organisation, controlled by the National Fund, soon got to work. This latter body has developed farms and settlements in all parts of Palestine, most of which were founded in the six years before the war, and have not yet had time to yield decisive results.

One of the first things the Zionists did was to insist upon Hebrew as the common language of the Jews in Palestine. This met considerable opposition, especially from the older Jews, who objected to relinquishing their dialect of Yiddish, and from the German Jews, who wished to preserve their own language. The first public act of the Zionist organisation, after the capture of Jerusalem, was to lay the foundation stone of a Hebrew University.

The visitor to Palestine, no matter what his views may be as regards a future Jewish State, will have but one opinion concerning the existing Jewish colonies. They are the only bright spots in Palestine, the only places where a progressive life is being led, where one finds comfortable European homes, with pleasant gardens, where the fields are tilled and the animals look as if they were fed, where the inhabitants can talk in English, French, or German, besides their native Hebrew—for the colonists of the younger generation are remarkable linguists—where the homes are scrupulously clean, and where, above all, children are cared for, and educated as they are nowhere better in the world. It was quite a common thing to hear both officers and men in the army during the war speak in glowing terms of the children, of their looks, their manners, and playful friendliness. Perhaps in no other direction is the contrast between the Jews of the colony, and the Arab more outspoken than in this matter of the children. The Arab children of the villages are totally uneducated, are as dirty as children who are never compelled to wash can become, the greater number are dressed in rags—often a piece of sacking picked up from the camp horse-lines sufficing for a costume—and for occupation, a competition with the hawks and crows for the refuse of the camps. Poor little mites spend whole days hanging round the destructor in camp sorting out the refuse for some unconsidered trifle.

The Jewish colonies, which number 34 in all, cover an area of some 90,000 acres, and are inhabited by 13,000 persons; that is 75 to the square kilometre. This compares with 11.62 for the whole of Palestine. Many of these colonies are situated in very poor soil, on land which previously was derelict, for it was only the waste lands that the early settlers were allowed to purchase. Great tracts of marsh have been reclaimed, eucalyptus forests have been planted, and deadly

malaria has been controlled. This was the greatest enemy the early colonists encountered. The Turkish Government in Palestine was never actively hostile to the Jewish colonies. It was, in fact, merely a system of obstruction, and a "backsheesh" collector, rather than an administration.

The old Government taxed every tree planted, and it required a special permission before anyone could build a house for human habitation. But perhaps the whole attitude of the late administration can be understood best by the following tale, which has the merit of being true. In 1915 Palestine was visited by a great plague of locusts. The Turkish Government was stimulated into unwonted activity by the persistence of Aronsohn, of the Zionist Agricultural Research Institute, at Athlit. An order was issued that every landowner must deliver to a special official so many "rotls" of locust eggs at stated intervals. The colonists worked like demons, and handed in their quota. The official received them, and immediately sold the eggs to an Arab, who sold it to another, who in his turn handed it in as his contribution to the extermination of the plague. The trade only ceased with the rotting of the eggs.

This attitude of the Government gave the colonists the chance of building up a system of autonomous government, of

which they availed themselves fully. They even set up a special judiciary. Before these courts, in remote places, the Arabs voluntarily placed their issues.

In conclusion, Dr. Salaman states that, given a stable government, hundreds of thousands of Jews from Eastern Europe will soon go to Palestine. Ample capital will be available to assist in development, but not a penny will be forthcoming unless two conditions are fulfilled.

The first, that the land shall be placed under a responsible and stable government, such as Great Britain alone can assure. The second, that if and when the Jewish population shall have attained a majority, the administration shall pass, under guarantees safeguarding all sects and holy places, into the hands of that majority. In this way Palestine may become a rich and productive country, with an enlightened and progressive population, whose loyalty to Great Britain will make it a bulwark of strength in that great field of intrigue and hostility, which to-day confronts her, from Damascus to Calcutta. Let only England combine her proverbial common sense with a modicum of imagination, and she will not only secure a fast friend, with roots in every country of the world, but she will herself share in the creation of that new era, when "the law will go forth from Zion, and the Word of the Lord from Jerusalem."

EXPERIMENTS IN HUMAN GRAFTING.

When a new scientific idea is given to the world, it is rarely grasped at once in its entirety by the public at large. If it happens to carry with it some corollary having an especially sensational flavour, the chances are that this subordinate detail will spread like wildfire along the channels provided by the newspapers, and the popular magazines, while the broad, fundamental features of the revelation will lag behind—not only for days, but even for generations. For example, it is notorious that the all-embracing theory of evolution was popularly understood, for decades after its enunciation, to be hardly anything more than the assertion of man's simian ancestry.

Just as Darwinism used to mean to the average citizen, and perhaps still does, the doctrine that mankind is descended from monkeys, so the recent far-reaching experiments of Dr. Serge Voronoff in the grafting of animal organs, bones and tissues seem to have been reduced, in popular apprehension, to certain un-

dertakings in the transplantation of the thyroid gland. The similarity to the case of Darwinism extends even to the prominence of the monkey—since the glands of apes were used in the experiments which have lately figured in the home papers.

Fortunately Dr. Voronoff has presented a comprehensive account of his work in *La Revue*. Thus we are able to glean important information which failed to reach us by way of the cables.

It appears that Dr. Voronoff, a former pupil of Dr. Carrel at the Rockefeller Institute, has been studying for many years the process of grafting, as applied to animals and man, with a view to ascertaining the conditions that insure success in such operations. He says:—

I undertook certain experiments in order to determine the conditions which might insure the definite vitality of grafted organs. I soon perceived that the organs borrowed by one animal from another of the same species sometimes exhibit signs of retrogression and atrophy. I concluded that the borrowed organ failed to find the proper vital conditions

and nutritive environment in its new host necessary for its continued existence.

Every living being represents a highly personal individual entity, possessing a peculiar temperament and blood character, which, while similar to that of other individuals of the same species, nevertheless has certain peculiarities which differentiate the intimate biological conditions of the cell life in our organs. This individual difference varies in degree, and it occurred to me that it must certainly be possible to find some individuals which were more closely similar than others among the same species. I based this opinion upon the fact that some individuals are found whose blood, when mingled, forms a uniform liquid wherewith it is impossible to distinguish the portions coming from one or the other. There are others, on the contrary, whose blood immediately coagulates in contact with the added blood, and there are still others whose blood acts like an acid upon the blood which is poured into it, dissolving and destroying the red corpuscles. An organ borrowed from an individual whose blood is very different from that of the individual in which it is planted is naturally certain to die, since its nutritive environment is suddenly changed. On the other hand, when the transplanted organ finds the same conditions which governed its previous life, it continues to live in a normal manner.

Family relationship was found to be favourable to grafting experiments, and the author was able, in the case of closely related sheep, to transplant even very delicate and complex organs, which exhibited perfect vitality at the end of two years.

Having thus proved his theory by animal experimentation, Dr. Voronoff proceeded to undertake human grafting. Shortly before the outbreak of the war he reported to the Academy of Medicine in Paris a remarkable case wherein he improved the condition of a child who was idiotic because of the atrophy of the thyroid gland, by grafting upon it a thyroid gland of a monkey, and a still more remarkable case where he grafted a portion of a thyroid gland of a mother upon her son with remarkable results. The latter, a youth of twenty, resembled a child of ten in appearance, having been born without a thyroid gland. He had remained small, fat, with a neck sunken in his shoulders, and the cretinoid face which recalls an animal. This boy, dull and apathetic, able to pronounce only a few intelligible words, and hiding in corners like a frightened animal, presented a painful contrast to his brother, only a year older, but a big, vigorous fellow, fighting bravely at the front.

In 1915 the mother, a strong and intelligent woman, gladly consented to have a portion of her own thyroid gland removed and grafted upon her son. The operation was highly successful, and at the end of a year an absolutely marvellous change was found in the afflicted youth. He had begun to grow, gaining 16 centimetres (over six inches) in the year, his head was no longer sunken between his shoulders. The bloated look had disappeared; best of all, his mind had been awakened. He was able to talk distinctly, and he is at present earning his living by working in a bakery.

Dr. Voronoff was able to apply his discoveries on a very extensive scale during the war to the treatment of shattered bones, in a hospital especially devoted to grafting operations. The process is thus described:

The first problem is to decide where to take the graft; as I have said, it is necessary that these grafts should find the same nutritive environment, and the same biological conditions in the new host, which they previously had. When the wounded man is able to bear it, the best thing, therefore, is to take the needed fragment of bone from his own body. At first the idea seems paradoxical, since the proposition is to repair a fractured leg or arm by breaking another bone of the wounded man. Happily the reality is less tragic than it seems. Nature has thoughtfully given us a bone which we can dispense with, without suffering any inconvenience. This is the fibula, that thin, but solid, bone which is able to bear a weight of 70 kilos. (154 pounds) without breaking, and which is fastened to the tibia. Our body is supported by the femur, which is joined directly to the tibia, and not to the fibula, which we retain as a vestige of an ancestral condition, and which we can dispense with without trouble, at any rate, its upper part. Moreover, there are many animals which are excellent runners and yet do not possess this bone.

When taken from the invalid himself this bone naturally finds the same vital conditions to which it is accustomed, and it is grafted with great ease in the new area to which it is transplanted. Placed between parts of bones which are larger than itself, such as the femur or the tibia, it not only welds the broken parts together, but it becomes larger itself, becoming indeed almost as large as the femur or tibia, thanks to the more abundant nutrition which it receives from the bigger blood vessels in its new position, and thanks also to the marvellous adaptability of every organ to its new function.

This growth in volume naturally requires a certain length of time, sometimes a year or

longer. But this bone is not the only one which can be used as material for grafting. The graft is often borrowed from the tibia, by cutting a piece of a certain thickness out of it, especially to repair an arm bone. The tibia is such a thick bone that it can stand such a loss without injuring its solidity; in fact, the wounded man who has had a piece of bone borrowed from his leg to mend his arm, is able to get out of bed and walk without trouble ten days after the operation. In other cases I have borrowed a bony fragment to fill in a fractured bone from the longest fragment of the injured bone itself.

Though what Dr. Voronoff calls "autografts"—i.e., grafts from the same individual—give the greatest assurance of success, it is quite possible to graft bones taken from another human being or a lower animal, and it is even thought feasible to borrow bones from dead men to mend those of the living, since bone is said to retain its vitality for about 18 hours after the general death of the individual.

AN EVERGREEN LAWN TENNIS PLAYER.

A. W. Gore, three times champion tennis player, is still one of the stalwarts at the game, and did well at Wimbledon last year, although at that time 50 years old. He contributes a capital article to *The National Review*, entitled "Wimbledon Memories." He declares that "no one is too young to begin learning, and no one is too old to continue learning." He himself won his first prize at Dinard, in France, when he was 12 years old. He was 33 when he first won the world's championship, and 40 when he won it for the second time. He gives the following advice to tennis players:

My advice—which, whether sound or unsound, is, at any rate, founded on prolonged experience—would be to everyone who wishes to become proficient at this most difficult and fascinating game: "Concentrate on timing and then hit the ball as hard as you can." Direction will come in time if you have a tolerable eye, and if you haven't it, is not worth your while to bother over any ball game; you are intended for other purposes in life. At first, if you follow this hint, you may hit out of the ground—as do many wild young Frenchmen—and for some weeks, or even months, you will consistently hit out of court, or maybe into the lower part of the net; you will be an exasperation to everyone you play against, and hateful to any partner you victimise. But if once you get into the habit of hitting hard, you will, at any rate, give yourself a chance of developing a drive, which is the foundation of capable, successful, and sporting play; you will, incidentally, derive much enjoyment from life whenever you can find time to play lawn-tennis. If, on the other hand, you start "playing for safety," you will be unlikely to play for anything else, and can never hope to be more than a "sticker," i.e., a man who will occasionally beat better players than himself when they are off their game, but who will never get anywhere near to the top of the tree.

He insists that a lawn-tennis ball should be treated like a cricket ball, and

hit as hard as health, strength and activity will permit. Mr. Gore apparently considers that Willie Renshaw was the greatest tennis player he ever met, although he writes very highly of H. L. Doherty. Gore defeated his brother, R.F., in 1901, but in the following year "H.L." handsomely avenged his elder brother by defeating Gore, three sets to one.

This was "H.L.'s" first championship, which he held for five years, during which period he is pronounced by not a few good judges to have been the greatest of all lawn-tennis players. But there are no means of comparing him with his famous forerunner, W. Renshaw, and we shall never know to whom the palm should be awarded. I have often been asked who was the best player of my time. It lies between H. L. Doherty and Pim—many would say R. F. Doherty, who was no doubt the more graceful of the brothers, but never the all-round player that "H.L." was. I always considered the latter held the key to their extraordinary success in doubles. "H.L." had no weak point. Pim at his best ran "H.L." very near. Undoubtedly the competition was keener in the Dohertys' than it had been in the Renshaws' day. The United States, for example, was not a serious factor in the 'eighties, as may be gathered from the fact that the first American champions, Messrs. Dwight and Sears, could be beaten by ordinary University pairs on their first visit to this country. Nor had Australasia been heard from at the time of the Renshaws. The Dohertys found themselves up against a very different proposition, and their first attempt to capture the Davis Cup from U.S.A. (in 1902) was not more successful than our previous effort, though the brothers did succeed in winning the doubles.

He and H. Roper-Barrett, another veteran, represented England against Brookes and Wilding, in 1907. They won the doubles, and Gore defeated Wilding in the singles, but found Brookes too formidable for him. Roper-

Barrett went down before both Brookes and Wilding.

Next year (1908) was comparatively quiet, but Wimbledon remained exceedingly popular, and the championship drew large crowds. Brookes was unable to come over to defend his title, so once again there was no challenge round, and by winning the All Comers' final I secured the championship for the second time, at the age of forty. Roper-Barrett was my opponent in the final, and was not a little fancied, not only because of his great gifts and original methods, but also because *en route* he had disposed of both Wilding and Ritchie, each of whom had his backers. Barrett was not at his very best against me, but we had a five-set match, and it would be generally agreed by the lawn-tennis world that my opponent on this occasion is about the best player who never won the championship, and that the roll would be more complete if it contained his name. He was very near it this year, and again in 1911, when he was forced to retire by illness when playing Wilding in the challenge round, the score being two sets all. Roper-Barrett also reached the final in 1909, when he was defeated by Ritchie, against whom I subsequently managed to hold the championship.

He says that the challengers who come to England from overseas have an immeasurable advantage over the home players, in learning their game on hard and lively courts, where "pussyfoot" play is made impossible by being hopeless.

A high bounding ball must be hit and not patted—risks must be taken that can be avoided on the slow surface of grass, which gives plenty of time to get to the ball and discounts winning shots. Young England has undoubtedly been at a conspicuous disadvantage in being confined to turf, with its inevitable tradition of "safety first." It is not easy to make a good grass court, which takes years to settle down, and, as a matter of fact, good grass courts are few and far between away from Wimbledon and some specially favoured places, such as Eastbourne. They demand unremitting care, and intelligent enthusiasm, such as they rarely get, and not a few of our tournament courts, including those of some crack London clubs, are a positive disgrace to look upon, and even worse to play on, as the ball is "all over the shop." There are a few decent private courts, though most are very bad. As a result of such conditions our home players, speaking generally, have been heavily handicapped. They learn their game on grounds where a bad bound is almost as common as a good one, and this uncertainty disables them from hitting, as there is only time to think of returning the ball whence it came; and it is our courts, and not any incompetence in the rising generation, that are responsible for the melancholy fact that at this essentially English game we have of late years been compelled to take a back seat.

In 1919, all the Wimbledon championships went to visitors, and this year the visitors were again successful, the lady championship only being won by an English player. He regards Gerald Patterson as a very great player indeed, and compares him with Willie Renshaw. He has very little to say about American players, but mentions that when he, with Roper-Barrett and E. P. Black, went to America, to attend the first Davis Cup contest, he had his first experience of the American service, which, before then, none of the Englishmen had ever seen or dreamt of.

Black and I played in the singles against D. F. Davis and M. D. Whitman respectively, and we were frankly amazed at the spin our opponents got on the ball, while we were amused at the manner in which our astonishment was written up by the descriptive reporters of enterprising American journals. I should place Whitman among the finest exponents of the game I have ever seen. This trip can scarcely be called successful, as we lost all three matches (Barrett and Black played together in the doubles), and the Americans not unnaturally believed that they were about to clear the board.

Mr. Gore mentions that in 1922 the Wimbledon courts will be closed, and the Old England Club will shift to a spot where the thousands anxious to view the championship matches can be accommodated. In view of the memories which cluster round Wimbledon, many regret the move, but it had become pure selfishness to play the matches, which ever-increasing thousands wished to see, on a terrain that only permits as many hundreds of spectators.

As evidence of the advance made by lawn-tennis, it is interesting to know that when Mr. Gore began playing, the courts were made in primitive fashion, by marking them out with a stick on the sand. He himself never made any preparation for a big match, but remained at his business in London, until lunch; then took the first convenient train to Wimbledon, so as to be able to get on the court in good time. He always felt thoroughly at home on the centre court. In these big matches, he says, "One thinks only of the game; one does not even see the crowd thickly packed though it may be round the court. Not a few players, however, suffer from nervousness under similar circumstances."

A NEW WORLD DISEASE.

A carnival of social disease has swept over Europe since the Armistice. This new form of epidemic is vividly described in *The Atlantic* for May by the English journalist, Sisley Huddleston:—

The diagnosis of the malady is not difficult. There is, first, this crazy seeking after artificial amusements, generally of an unpleasant kind; there is a love of display that runs to the utmost eccentricity; there is a wave of criminality; there is an unscrupulous profiteering, a cynical disregard of suffering, a mad desire to get rich quickly, no matter by what means; and there is a reluctance to do any genuine work. You can visit any capital, and you will find these characteristic stigmata. This pathological condition is certainly the legacy of war. Men's mental outlook has changed. Those who were sober, industrious citizens, content to rear up their families, and walk usefully and humbly in the world, are now stricken by the wild notion of having a "good time"; a good time that means the easy earning of questionable money, its prodigal dispersal, forgetfulness of the family, non-production of necessities, hopeless confusion and incompetence, which affect private as well as governmental persons, and a lowering of moral values, a debasing of intellect.

Continuity has been broken. All is in the melting-pot. The old landmarks have vanished. People were torn up by the roots. Their habits were shattered. Their beliefs were destroyed. Their very soul was melted in the fiery furnace of war, and moulded and twisted into new shapes. To straighten it back will be a prodigious feat. They have trampled on their religion. They have abandoned those good prejudices which kept society together. They have become cynical and selfish.

The demoralising regime of war accounts for much of the present social discontent. As Mr. Huddleston puts it, the habit of soldiering develops unconcern for human life, one's own and the enemy's; disregard of property, one's own, and one's neighbours; disregard for the sanctity of women; disregard of Time and Eternity. The evils that have arisen from this "philosophy of heedlessness" can be eradicated only if we recognise the causes and apply ourselves resolutely to the cure. Behind all the strikes and threats of strikes Mr. Huddleston finds no generous impulse, no spiritual stirring. It is all cold materialism. Everybody is profiteering. The contractors who can buy and sell at exorbitant profits are frankly unscrupulous. The manufacturer sells at a swin-

dling price, because he has had to deal with governments that took no heed of money, or with officials who are corrupt. The worker naturally demands his share, for he has found that labour also is something on which a profit can be made.

What is worse is that in France, in England, in Germany, in Poland, the worker wants to dodge his work. That he should get a high price is permissible. That he should try to escape his obligations is another matter. He thinks no shame if he does not deliver the goods. He is in exactly the same moral position as the grocer, who mixes sand with his sugar. I think it may honestly be said that the worker is the last to succumb to this spirit of greed. Now the circle of social immorality is practically complete, and all grades, from the Paris landlord, who has doubled his rent because there are not enough houses, the contractor who deliberately supplies shoddy material, the shopkeeper who cheats and robs his customers as a habit, down to the workman who demands the highest possible pay for the least possible work, are doing their best to live at one another's expense.

Mr. Huddleston has only the most scathing censure for the new rich of Great Britain. He refers to the findings of the Central Profiteering Commission, which revealed in some instances profits of 3200 per cent. One Lancashire cotton factory before the war earned £8,000 a year in profits. During the war it reached £50,000, then £60,000, then £125,000, and last year netted £500,000. Factories are prospering as never before, and yet their products are almost inaccessible to the ordinary person. Shares of stock in one instance were bought at £1, and sold at £10. A new company had a capital of £200,000 subscribed before it could be registered.

As to the wave of actual crime that has swept over Europe, Mr. Huddleston cites with approval these reasons as set out by an English writer:

(1) That many men, who had criminal instincts, but also a horror of killing, before the war, are now more or less devoid of that horror.

(2) That many men who had embarked on a career of crime before the war were liberated from prison during hostilities, and entered the army, and that these are now free again to resume their depredations against society.

(3) That unemployment and the high cost of living have forced many men, who would otherwise have been law-abiding citizens, into criminality.

(4) That the general feeling of unrest which is permeating all classes is responsible for much crime.

In addition, it is found that nervous diseases, which it would be difficult to diagnose, are prevalent. Many men, when closely questioned by Mr. Hud-

dleston, confessed that it was a year or so after the war that they first felt "a strange depression, a lowering of vitality, a mental and moral degeneration." Mr. Huddleston can only conclude that, turn where one will, one finds only that the war has worsened mankind.

CAN THE WORLD ABSORB MORE MOTOR CARS?

The immense increase in motor car production in the United States is causing many people there to ask whether the "saturation" point is not already in sight. Mr. J. George Frederick discusses the question in an informative article published in *The American Review of Reviews*. He states that the American automobile industry is now second in size only to the iron and steel industry, and it is the largest manufacturing business of finished goods in the world. By the end of this year, the total annual volume of the combined automobile accessory and supply business will have reached almost 4,400,000,000 dollars, at present exchange over £1,000,000,000. Half of this is represented by automobiles, passenger and truck. The point must apparently arrive soon when the income limitations of the people of the United States will prevent further absorption of automobiles.

When it is realised that the income-tax returns show considerably less than 1,000,000 people with incomes of 3000 dollars per year and over, with the cost of living 100 per cent. to 124 per cent. over 1914, and gasoline 37 cents a gallon, and the average price of a car 25 dollars, it will be seen that we face a statistical anomaly. The ghost seems to haunt it. How can people afford the auto, they now own, to say nothing of larger production to come? The production plans of the automobile manufacturers for 1920 being 2,000,000 passenger cars, and 425,000 trucks, it certainly would seem to require a very roseate optimist to believe that the automobile industry could continue each year to grow as it has been growing. But things are not always quite as they seem on the surface.

People engaged in other industries are getting restive owing to the fact that a great number of motor car making firms, by offering much higher wages, are tempting workmen away from factories in other lines of trade. The plate glass industry is considerably upset, because the motor car manufacturers now take half the annual output of 100,000,000

feet, and are paying a dollar a square foot for it,—a price 300 per cent. higher than that which obtained in 1914. As a result of this consumption, furniture is now being sold without mirrors, in many cases, because the glass cannot be had!

The demand for cars is still great, and it is stated that if 2,000,000 cars could be obtained at the present moment, they would all be sold within ten days. The supply is altogether unable to meet the demand at present.

There are at this writing approximately 7,750,000 automobiles in use in the United States, about 800,000 of these being trucks. This is approximately one car for every 13 persons in the United States, as against one automobile for every 2182 persons in the rest of the world; as against 268 persons in England, 402 persons in France, or 684 persons in Germany, or, to show an extreme, as against 500 persons in Russia. Certain sections of the United States show a much higher concentration than the country as a whole. Iowa stands at the head of the list, with one automobile to every five or six persons. This is almost one for every family! Wm. Allen White has admitted that there are more automobiles registered from Emporia, Kansas than there are families there.

The Americans have hitherto not concerned themselves very greatly with the export trade, but during the war, foreign countries got a taste of the value of the American moderate-priced car, and are now demanding considerably more than the Americans can spare.

Europe has 449,000,000 people, and only 437,000 automobiles. If Europe, in the constructive years to come, will absorb only one car to every 50 people, which is only one-fifth of the number of cars in use per person in the United States, it would require 31,300,000 cars. Cut this down to one-tenth of America's per capita market, and still it would amount to 15,650,000 cars. If the United States merely got a reasonable proportion of this market (although indications are that it has a good chance for the bulk of it), the American automobile factories could entirely cease making cars for America, and keep going for some years only on foreign cars. In fact, I

understand that the foreign sales subsidiary of the General Motors Corporation has expressed itself as ready to take the entire output of the General Motors Company at any time. This G.M. output for the first three months of 1920 was 119,779—an increase of 45.2 per cent. over last year.

Mr. Frederick points out that, if the same proportion of cars per person as now prevails in Iowa, could be sold to the whole of the United States, 40,800,000 more cars could be put in operation—a calculation that is hard to follow—in view of the fact that the population of the United States is 100,000,000, and in Iowa there is one automobile to every five persons!

The freight paralysis on the railways has greatly increased truck haulage. There are about 800,000 motor trucks in operation in the United States, which haul an average of $4\frac{1}{2}$ tons per day each, a total of 3,600,000 tons daily.

Contrasting this with steam-railway performance, we find that the truck is now actually hauling 15 per cent. of the total haulage of the country; 360,000,000 tons by truck per year, as against 2,400,000,000 tons per year by railway locomotives. About 5 per cent. of this increase in truck haulage has occurred since the railway congestion and tie-ups. The average cost of this haulage is 18 cents per ton mile, as against 24 cents per ton mile by horse, and .96 by railway locomotive. Although steam railway transportation is obviously much cheaper in transit, the terminal delivery costs are large; and speed is worth money. Three million six hundred thousand horses have been released for use on farms by truck haulage, which is the equivalent of the tillage of 15,000,000 acres of land. Motor routes for the transportation of freight are increasing, although the practical limitation of such routes is 50 or 75 miles. Criticism of the automobile situation should be directed chiefly against the uneconomic use or waste of automobile service; and some of the automobile companies have themselves undertaken to educate the public in this direction. It is estimated that 3,000,000 gallons of gasoline per day are wasted or needlessly used.

Mr. Frederick says that, although automobile manufacturers, assisted by the unprecedented demand for body materials, might sell at almost any price, the advances in price of automobiles are much below the increases in other fields. He considers it inevitable, though, that prices of cars and trucks will soon have to mount considerably owing to the high wages now paid, and the foreign competition for materials, which is causing these to increase notably in price.

Discussing the financial side of the automobile business, he states that automobile stocks are now more prominent on the Stock Exchange than are railway stocks. Some of the greatest motor companies, notably the General Motors Corporation, are capitalised for a greater sum than the biggest railroads in the United States. General Motors is capitalised at a total of 1,020,000,000 dollars. It operates 40 manufacturing plants, and has about 63,000 employees. The capital of the Pennsylvanian Railroad is only 600,000,000 dollars, that of the United States Steel Corporation 1,000,000,000.

The General Motors Co. makes not only Cadillacs, Buicks, Chevrolets, etc., in passenger cars and trucks, but manufactures many parts, farm implements, refrigerating machines, house-lighting systems, etc.

During 1919, no fewer than 25,324,652 shares in nine automobile stocks were traded against 12,800,086 shares in the nine leading railway companies.

It is a habit to look upon the automobile manufacturing industry mainly from the point of view of the manufacture of cars. This is missing one of the most striking aspects of the industry—the accessory and supply business, which, when computed to include oil, tyres and gasoline, has now reached a volume that is *greater than the automobile business itself*. Each year's new production merely increases the relative size of this business. For instance, the production of automobiles, including trucks, for 1919, was 1,807,595,000 dols.; yet the production of *tyres alone* this year will approximate 1,000,000,000 dols. When it is realised that there is an average of about 300 dols. spent each season for accessories, supplies, replacements, and repairs upon each car, it will be seen that we have a total of nearly 2,400,000,000 dols., which is 20 per cent. larger than the car manufacturing business alone.

It is realised by few people who talk about the automobile business that as the average life of an automobile is five years, the replacement business alone, when the number of cars will have reached 10,000,000 is 2,000,000 cars per year.

Mr. Frederick considers that the development of the world market for tractors, mining plants and other engines will begin a new phase in the world markets, in which the internal combustion engine will be the primary factor, and considers that the automotive plants of the United States need not fear the coming of that "saturation" point, the arrival of which so many people are expecting.



Deserters in Switzerland.

During the war Switzerland not only supported tens of thousands of maimed and sick prisoners, but it also had to look after great numbers of deserters. The various Governments concerned ultimately permitted these men to return home under amnesty, but in May of last year there were some 25,000 still in Switzerland. It is interesting to note that over 10,000 of these were Italians. The numbers of French and Germans were about equal—some 3000. The rest were made up from almost every country in Europe, including a dozen or so from England.

The Biggest Ship in the World.

The giant ex-German liner, *Imperator*, is giving the Cunard Company, to whom she was allotted, a good deal of trouble. She is described as being very "tender," and arrived at Southampton Docks recently with a pronounced list. Formerly, she would take in 10,000 tons of coal at the beginning of every voyage, and still have a lot of it left at the end of it. This gave her stability. Now that coal is so difficult to get, this sort of ballast can no longer be utilised. It is proposed to do away with her third funnel and other topweights, but it will be some time before she is again put on the American run.

Six-Hour Day in Germany.

The miners in Saxony in May last agreed to accept from 45 to 55 marks for a day of seven hours including descent and ascent. They are now claiming that six hours only should be worked a day from pit mouth to pit mouth, which means that the time available for actual work would be about four and a

half hours. The wages they demand are—for workers under 16, 36 marks, workers above that age, 60 marks, the wages of men with two or more children to be increased to 75 marks per day. In addition, all workers to be allowed 70 quintals of coal per year at 55 pfennigs per quintal.

Switzerland and League of Nations.

The details of the voting in Switzerland on the question as to whether that country should enter the League of Nations or not, are interesting. The majority was fairly substantial—414,600 voting in favour of joining the League and 320,880 voting against. It is necessary to have not only an absolute majority of voters, but also a majority of Cantons in favour of any measure submitted to referendum. The German Cantons voted against inclusion, the French and Italian Cantons were in favour. Actually there was a majority of one Canton only in favour of joining the League. This, however, was sufficient to commit the country.

French Ambassador to Germany.

The new French Ambassador at Berlin, Maurice Herbet, has had much experience of Germany. He speaks the language perfectly, and spent his early youth at Berlin where his father was Ambassador from 1886 to 1896. He began his diplomatic career as attache to the Embassy in Berlin. In 1911, he became *chef-de-Cabinet* to M. Cruppi. Shortly before the war he translated Prince Von Bulow's book into French. In commenting on his appointment, the German papers say that, whilst friendly feeling can hardly be expected from the new Ambassador, he, at any rate, has the advantage of knowing Germany better

than the majority of his fellow-countrymen.

Cornering Screws.

Before the war the International Screw Syndicate attempted to control the world's output of screws. The leading firm in the syndicate was Nettlefolds, with which the Chamberlain family is so intimately connected. The monopoly sought could, however, not be obtained owing to German competition. This has now been eliminated, and Nettlefolds, in conjunction with a big French company, have acquired control of the two largest Austrian screw-making concerns. They are said to have paid 80,000,000 kronen to secure the controlling interest. This huge sum at former exchange rates would have meant £3,000,000; at present exchange represents only £150,000. The Austrian Companies will be admitted to the International Screw Syndicate, and will be given a monopoly of the East European market.

Complicating Navigation.

Formerly navigation on the Danube was a fairly simple matter, as although the great river ran from Germany through Austria and the Balkans to the Black Sea, it was under the control of a Commission on which all the riparian States were represented. The traffic on the river is now made very difficult owing to the restrictions which the various new States have placed on trade and commerce. The Commission which has been settling the control of the Danube has announced that from Ulm to Passau, the river is to be regarded as German, from Passau to Theben as Austrian, from Theben to Parkany as Czecho-Slovak, from Parkany to Baja as Magyar, from Baja to Orsova as Serb, from Orsova to the Black Sea as Roumanian. Apparently, the unfortunate Bulgarians, the whole of whose northern frontier is bounded by the Danube, are to have little say whatever in the control of traffic on that stream. Every ship using the Danube must conform to the laws of the River State through whose sector it happens to pass.

Supplying Dope to China.

What is called "Britain's opium monopoly," is being severely criticised

in the American papers just now. This criticism has induced the Indian office to publish a statement, showing the quantity and value of opium grown in, and exported from, the Indian Empire, since 1913. It appears that the acreage under poppies grew from 144,561 in 1914 to 204,186 in 1916, the last year for which figures are given. In that year 8710 chests of opium were exported. In 1919 the number was 10,467. American critics assert that, although Great Britain does not ship direct to China, the drug is passed through French territory to the Celestial Republic. This seems to be proved by the statement, which shows that of the chests exported from India, no fewer than 5190 went to Indo-China and Siam. It is absurd to contend that this huge quantity was for medical supplies only. Americans also assert that opium reaches China from Japan. Britain, however, has now put an embargo on exports to Japan, and America herself has become the supplier of drugs by that route.

General von Seeckt.

General von Seeckt, the present Minister of War in Germany, is an officer of a very different type to those who have hitherto had control of military affairs in that country. He is a democrat and, during the war, was not at all popular amongst militarists. His great ability, however, could not be denied, and he became Chief of Staff to Field-Marshal von Mackensen. He is regarded in Germany as having been the man responsible for the German successes in Serbia, and for the overthrow of Roumania. Whilst Mackensen, the Kaiser's personal friend, was always in the limelight, it was von Seeckt who did the work. When officers had to choose between supporting the Republic or the military party, he unhesitatingly threw in his lot with the reformers, not because he considered it would better his position, but because he had always opposed the Junkers who desired to rule by military force. He, unlike most of his colleagues, is a widely travelled man, having visited the tropics and many parts of the British Empire. He was far too broad minded for his fellow Generals, and for that reason was not at all liked

by them. He will probably take a leading part in German affairs in the future.

Cost of Allied Commissions.

The German papers are showing themselves to be very disturbed over the huge cost of the various Missions which the Allies have sent to the different districts where plebiscites are to be taken. The monthly salaries the Germans have to pay to *Entente* officers are:—Generals 21,000 marks, Colonels 15,000 marks, Captains 12,500 marks, non-commissioned officers 10,000 marks. Germany, in fact, has to find no less than 2,000,000 marks every month wherewith to pay the occupying troops. In addition there are many other expenses which the Germans are expected to meet. Germany has to pay the Allied Commissions charged with the supervision of the plebiscites and other matters. The Commissioners receive £250 a month, their assistants from £100 to £120. Secretaries get £100 and typists £45. Chauffeurs have to be paid £30 per month. At present exchange this means that the Commissioners receive 52,500 marks per month and the typists get 9450. For the year, it is estimated that Germany will have to find at least 40,000,000 marks to cover the cost of these Commissions and the occupying forces.

Unwanted Immigrants.

Last year the American papers reflected the concern felt in official quarters in the United States over the migration of Slavs and other European races from America to Europe; but we have never heard what became of these people. The Swiss papers throw some light on the subject. It appears that these homing men and women, who left America with their passports vized by Swiss consuls, were not welcomed in France or Italy, but were hustled in sealed trains to the Swiss frontier. To get back to Bohemia, Poland, Hungary, and other parts of Central Europe, they were obliged to traverse German-Austria. The Austrian Government, however, refused to allow them to cross the frontier, because it possessed neither the coal nor the rolling stock required for their transportation. They, therefore, had to remain in Switzerland, where they were looked after by the long-suffering

Swiss. Meanwhile, the Swiss Government entered into negotiations with Vienna, in which, by the way, it received very little help from the Governments of those countries to which these stranded people desired to go. In the end, the Swiss were only able to get them away by themselves supplying the coal required for their transport, and the food they needed on the journey. The total numbers are not given, but the size of the migration may be gathered from the fact that no fewer than 25,000 Poles were despatched from Switzerland at one time, in 25 trains, under special guard, which was charged with their safe delivery in Poland.

Field-Marshal Viscount Wolseley was accorded a public funeral in St. Paul's Cathedral. His widow, who has just died, states in her will that it is her most earnest wish to be buried with her late husband, and if the Dean and Chapter of St. Paul's Cathedral refuse permission, she directs her executors to demand from them the coffin of her husband, so that her remains may rest in the same grave, either in Glynde churchyard or elsewhere.

The Swiss have undertaken the saving of the children of the Central States of Europe in a methodical manner. During last year they welcomed some 70,000 children under 14, for a stay of from four to six weeks. Twenty-three thousand of these starving children came from Germany, the rest from Austria and Hungary. The great majority were entertained in private homes, although a few were accommodated in hospitals and sanatoria.

Up to the end of April Germany had delivered 2224 tons of dye-stuffs to the Allies, in accordance with the provisions of the Peace Treaty. The dyes were valued at £1,546,690. Since then, another 400 tons have been delivered. Altogether one-third of the stipulated quantity has been handed over, and deliveries have also begun under the requirement that 25 per cent. of the German annual output, during the five years immediately after the war, shall be sent to *Entente* countries at fair prices.

The Great War Foretold in 1911.

BY M. DELAISI.

M. Delaisi's prophecy, the first part of which was given in our last issue, was made four years before the war broke out, but he saw clearly that whilst England's object would be to blockade Germany, the latter would at once endeavour to seize control of ports in Belgium, and that England, supreme on the sea, would be forced into a land war in order to prevent this happening. He forgot, or did not know, that the doctrine of "continuous voyage" would enable Great Britain to stop neutral ships bringing supplies to Germany. That is to say he assumed, as almost everybody did assume, that a belligerent was not entitled to blockade neutral as well as enemy States. We know that this was done, but it is fairly safe to say that it would not have been done had the neutrals in question been powerful States; had France, for instance, not joined in the fray, it is quite unlikely that Great Britain would have ventured to strictly limit her imports and exports, and control her ships as she did those of Holland and Denmark.

M. Delaisi quite rightly pointed out that Rotterdam and Antwerp had become, commercially speaking, German cities, handling indeed more German trade than either Hamburg or Bremen, and that unless these two ports could be sealed up, raw materials could reach the manufacturing establishments on the Rhine in Saxony and in Silesia, and the economic life of Germany would go on. He imagined that German ships would be able to denationalise themselves and hoisting Belgian, Dutch, Norwegian or Danish flags, could not be captured by the British fleet. Though he was astray here, he was right in his statement that both Germany and England would put forth great efforts to secure possession of Antwerp.

He assumed that Holland would be unable to avoid being forced in on Germany's side, and, that therefore, Flushing, which commands the entrance to the Scheldt, would be used as a German

naval base, thus preventing the English fleet from getting to Antwerp. He refers to the anger which was shown in England when the Dutch proposed to erect powerful forts at Flushing, and quotes *The Times* as having declared, "Flushing fortified is a pistol pointed at the heart of England." He continues:—

Belgium, they say, is a neutral country. By a solemn treaty all the neighbouring powers have agreed in case of war, to respect her territory. At the same time if one of them should undertake to march its troops through Belgium, all the others must arm themselves to prevent it.

This is a great obstacle for England, because it is simply indispensable for her to have Antwerp closed, and she cannot accomplish this without violating treaties and running the risk of starting a European war. Happily there is a means of circumventing this obstacle. Antwerp is not directly on the sea, it is like Rouen, Nantes and Bordeaux, a river port located 70 kilometers inland. Therefore to block access to it it is not necessary to land there, it is sufficient to station a squadron at the mouth of the river to bar the passage for merchant vessels. The proposed forts at Flushing would prevent this.

It is necessary for England's triumph over Germany that Antwerp be closed; to enable Germany to resist, Antwerp must remain open. It is a vital question to both. It is, therefore, around Antwerp that the fate of the two Empires will be decided, and it is on the plains of Belgium that the economic domination of the old world will be determined between the two great nations. But the neutrality of Belgium has been guaranteed by France. That is why each of the two Powers is endeavouring at this moment to draw us into this serious conflict.

"Very well," you say, "if England and Germany absolutely insist on fighting, let them do so! As for us, let us

keep out of the quarrel and remain neutral."

That is wisdom itself; unfortunately it is not practicable, for each of the adversaries wants to involve us in the conflict. England needs our army, Germany needs our money. Both are pulling us; one this way, one that.

And this is the secret of the Chauvinistic agitation which the press is fomenting at present.

England, as I have shown, in order to throttle German industry, must absolutely blockade Antwerp. But she must also reckon that the Kaiser will not permit her to do this without resistance. At the first sign of war—and even before the official declaration—it is probable that a German fleet will station itself at Flushing under the protection of the Dutch forts, and that a Prussian Army Corps will advance by forced marches to occupy Antwerp.

If this manœuvre succeeds and an English squadron cannot take the first step, then Antwerp must be taken by land. But there the method of operation changes; the sea blockade will be superseded by a continental war. England must disembark troops in Belgium; it is necessary that these troops bar the route of the Prussian army and throw it back upon the Rhine and Meuse. That is why Lord Kitchener, the great English General, spoke these famous words, "The frontier of the British Empire in Europe is not the Straits of Calais, but the line of the Meuse. A strange formula, which shows what neutrality counts for, in both camps!

But with what troops will England occupy the frontier? This is where the London Cabinet meets with difficulties.

It is well known that England does not have compulsory military service. She alone in Europe has declined to place a heavy burden of a "national army" upon her citizens. Secure in the power of her fleet, she has been content until now with a small army of professional soldiers and a reserve of 200,000 volunteers, brave men, but without training or discipline. We know what a sad figure this army cut in facing the Boers!

However, if war should break out with Germany, England would have to measure, not with peasants—brave,

but undisciplined, having no knowledge of tactics—but with a regular army perfectly equipped and trained, splendidly organised, and which is considered to be the best in Europe.

In the presence of this great danger the general staff sounds the alarm. In Parliament, Lord Roberts made the following statement: "There is only one remedy for the present situation: Compulsory military service for all Englishmen." Unfortunately, this remedy appeared not to be quite to the taste of the English people. They have always believed it to be a considerable advantage not to be obliged to spend two years of their lives in the barracks, in fatiguing and unproductive drill.

Liberals and Conservatives are aware of this strong popular opposition. They know that if they enforced compulsory military service on the citizens of free England they would forever ruin their belligerent policy, and after several fruitless attempts in the House of Lords, the measure was rejected.

But, nevertheless, they have to get troops to occupy Belgium, and throw the Prussians back on the Meuse. Not finding them at home, they thought of France.

"We lack soldiers," they said, "but France has them. Over there beyond the Straits of Calais is a numerous army, well trained, well disciplined, well equipped, capable, in a word, of resisting Germany. The French are brave, they are aggressive, they like war and know how to wage it, if we can impress them with the catchphrase 'national honour,' 'the highest interest of patriotism,' and 'civilisation,' they will march. Let us try to interest the French army with us.

"That will not be difficult. French democracy is for show. The people are in reality governed by an oligarchy of financiers and steel magnates who control the press and politicians.

"Let us bargain with these people. Let us promise them some large war loans, whereby their banks can earn high commissions. Let us bind ourselves to obtain for them orders for railroads in Turkey and large concessions in Syria, Ethiopia and Morocco.

"For such millions they will sell us the French army."

Thus reasoned England's leaders, and the politicians started the work.

In 1903, immediately after the close of the Transvaal War, Edward VII. went to Paris, and all the amiable dunces, who had so often cried "Long live Kruger," were now told by the press to cry "Long live England."

In order to recompense us for Egypt, where we held financial control, the London Cabinet generously gave us Morocco—which did not belong to them. And at all our financial banquets they acclaimed the "*entente cordiale*." But that did not suffice.

Delcasse, who in 1905 wished to involve us in a war with Germany, having been overthrown, England saw that she would have to act with prudence. She waited until that friend and companion of Edward VII. came back to power. As if by chance, he is appointed Minister of Marine, and—also as if by chance—on the eve of his success it was announced that negotiations were under way between London and Paris for the conclusion of the military treaty. This treaty, let it be understood, will be defensive. But it will be easy for the British Government in blockading Antwerp to force Germany to declare war.

And then we, the French, will have to do the fighting on the Belgian Plains, not for the King of Prussia this time, but for the King of England. That is what in reality is being engineered in the twilight of diplomatic correspondence and the silence of the Parliaments.

England has always had need of a soldier on the Continent. Formerly, during the struggle with Napoleon, she paid the Austrian and Prussian troops to march against France. To-day she wants to send our national infantry against the Prussians. The roles have been changed, but the play is the same. It remains to be seen if we will play the game.

I know a great many brave Frenchmen who imagine that Emperor William every morning, when taking his chocolate, asks himself whether he shall not give the order to launch his Uhlans against Nancy. They believe that the only desire of the Prussian is to hurl themselves upon us. And it must be con-

fessed that our great newspapers do all they can to keep this fear alive.

It is indispensable for our steel magnates to secure votes for great numbers of cannon and battleships to enrich their stockholders. Without the fear of the German bogeyman what would become of the dividends of the Creusot Gun Works?

Furthermore, it must be recognised that the Berlin Government plays exactly the same game with the German people. Since 1871, every time that Bismarck and his successors wished to procure from the Reichstag a further military vote and modern armaments, they took two or three articles from *La Patrie*, and a speech from Deroulede and dished up the whole with great bursts of eloquence in order to raise the spectre of *Revanche*; and they obtained for their steel magnates all they wished.

Thus we have on both sides the same game of threatening talk and stage effects. But how can we distinguish if these threats are sincere or a mere "metallic" bluff?

To do so it suffices to examine the economic interests of the two Powers. In Germany, as in France, as in all the great European nations, it is these interests—and not the caprices of monarchs—which dominate the foreign policy and decide for peace or war.

For 40 years there has been no lack of opportunities for the Germans to attack and conquer us. That they have not done so is not because of sympathy for us. It is because the Germans have been entirely absorbed by the idea of making a great industrial nation of their country. To-day, their very success makes them rivals of Great Britain. But have they any reason for entering into a conflict with us?

From a commercial point of view, Germany sells almost as much to France as she buys from her. For twenty years exports and imports have almost balanced. On their part, the Germans export to all the markets of the world products of general utility—machines, hardware, cotton goods, etc., We, on the other hand, export nothing but articles of luxury—Paris wares, dresses, jewellery, etc.—wherein the German taste cannot compete with ours. There

is thus neither commercial competition nor any economic conflict.

"But," someone may say, "there are our colonies. Germany has none; would she not take ours?"

Those who entertain such ideas I advise to read the report of M. Violette. They will see the lamentable condition of our colonies. Only one is self-sustaining—Indo-China—and the system of Doumer has so burdened it down that it is on the eve of a general revolt.

Moreover, just before a grave conflict with England, William II. cannot afford to multiply his vulnerable points on the face of the globe. He prefers rather to colonise Turkey-in-Asia under the cover of Ottoman independence.

There remains the conquest of a French province. Alas! Germany is still suffering from the abuse of its annexations—in a hundred and fifty years she has not been able to digest Poland; Danish Schleswig and even Hanover give her nothing but trouble; and she was compelled to grant self-government to the Alsace-Lorraines, whom she has not been able to govern.

There is only one piece of territory which she might want. The Empire is short of iron ores. But just on the frontier, in the Department Meurthe-et-Moselle have been discovered large deposits, some of the richest in the world. The industrials beyond the Rhine might be tempted to demand their annexation.

It is quite superfluous, because our capitalists themselves have ceded to their German rivals, by liberal consideration, a considerable portion of their concessions. Why should William II. exert himself to take by force a treasure which our great patriotic steel magnates daily deliver to him of their own accord?

In truth I have searched for reasons why the Germans should attack us; I have not found them!

On the other hand I see plainly the reasons they have for treating us fairly.

Primarily, and that is the essential point, they need our money. To create an industry, capital is necessary, and Germany has not enough money. No doubt she realises great profits every year. But she is relatively a new country; she has not the strong reserves of the old nations like England and France, with industries one or two centuries older,

and who have accumulated billions in their traditional "stockings."

Every year the creation of new factories absorbs the national savings, and the more the country develops, the more money it needs. Where find this money except in France, in the country of capitalists without initiative, who do not know how to use the richest treasure in the world, and do not know any better than to lend it to foreigners?

In 1902, William II. tried to make a financial alliance with our banks. He had just secured from the Sultan of Turkey the concession of the Bagdad railway, which excited the envy of Europe to a high degree. But Germany was just coming out of a commercial crisis and had no available capital.

The Kaiser then approached our banks. A Franco-German syndicate was formed; it had for its president, Arthur von Gwinner, president of the Deutsche Bank, and for vice-president M. Vernes, the partner of Rothschild in the Compagnie du Nord and the Compagnie du Midi, manager of the Banque de l'Union Parisienne, of the Bank Ottoman, of the Saloniki-Constantinople railway; after these came Rouvier, G. Auboyneau, and others.

The agreement made between the financiers, a diplomatic rapprochement became inevitable. And already M. Jules Lemaitre was preaching friendship with Germany and to forget the past. No doubt if the financial combination had succeeded we would to-day have an *entente cordiale* with Germany.

But soon England became disquietened. In this economic struggle with Germany she has only one advantage—an abundance of capital. If France were to lend hers to England's rival, the British supremacy would be definitely compromised.

Soon, at the beginning of 1903, Edward VII. came to Paris in great pomp.

What took place between the King and Delcasse, Vernes and some others, history alone can tell. One fact is certain; The day after the departure of the King for London, the financial agencies announced that M. Vernes and his group had retired from the Bagdad railway enterprise, and that the Franco-German syndicate had been dissolved.

One year later the *entente cordiale* was concluded with England.

M. Delcasse, henceforth inseparably allied with the fortune of England, soon committed himself to a policy of encircling Germany and dragging us into a war with her. We know how he was ousted by Rouvier in 1905.

At this moment, William II. had a fine opportunity to attack us—our entire Nationalist press is unanimous in declaring that our invincible generals would have been beaten then. The Kaiser did not do it. Oh, not for sympathy for France. It is simply because his interests counselled him to forbear.

Far from attacking us, he tried everything to renew the relations with our business men. Ever since 1906, in Asia Minor, in the Ouenza syndicate, in the Union of Moroccan mines, he planned to associate German capitalists with French capitalists. He had constituted, officially, a small Franco-German syndicate at Glarus, Switzerland, for the issuing of stock for the Bagdad railway; his banks borrowed every four months, large sums at high interest, from the Credit Lyonnais. Through all these means he endeavoured to restore matters to the condition of 1903, before the visit of Edward VII. to Paris.

These manifestations of friendship were not disinterested. If William II. tried by all means to secure rapprochement between the two countries, it was because he needed us. It is because his industry requires the assistance of our capital in order to promote its development. And that alone is a guarantee that Germany does not try to make war on us. But it is especially in case of an Anglo-German conflict that the French savings would become necessary to the Kaiser. And it is that which makes the situation of our country so delicate.

It is two years since, at Hamburg, there was held a congress of German bankers, which all who counted for anything in the financial circles of the country attended.

The report said: "Our military mobilisation has been made and well made; but our financial mobilisation is not ready. A war with England would cost at least 5,000,000,000 francs a year and would probably last two years."

These ten billions—where is Germany to find them? Evidently not in London

or New York. There are only the two Austrian and Italian allies, who cannot furnish this money—they have not enough for themselves. It might be got in France! This rich country which does not know what to do with its savings. France this year subscribed loans for 6,000,000,000 francs (4,400,000,000 are foreign securities). It is the French bond-holders who recently loaned 2,000,000,000 to Russia, which made it possible for her to resist the assaults of Japan for two years.

If they should deign to do as much for Germany! Then the war loans subscribed in Paris would go to replenish the war-chests of Spandau; then the Kaiser would always find the sums necessary to repair his battleships, to equip his troops and feed his soldiers. There would be no industrial crisis and no financial crisis. Germany without exhaustion could sustain the English attack. The salvation of the Empire lies at the Paris Bourse!

That is the immense service that France solely by means of her savings, can render her proud neighbour. And now we comprehend all the efforts of William II. to draw her with smiles and threats, willingly or not, into his sphere.

Unfortunately a loan of money to Germany would estrange us from England. The London Cabinet would never permit that France should furnish money to the Berlin people to pay for shells to bombard the English fleet. And it is a known fact that admittance of German securities to the official exchange of Paris would lead to an immediate rupture of the *entente cordiale*.

Thus we are placed in a delicate position. Each of the two adversaries seeks to engage us against the other—the one needs our money, the other our army—and we cannot give our assistance to the one without exposing ourselves to the reprisals of the other.

There is one good solution, which is to remain neutral and to give neither military nor financial assistance to either one.

But can we do it? Will Germany not try to take our money by force if we refuse her the loans which she needs? It is a serious problem which must not be decided without due reflection.

(To be continued.)

OTHER PEOPLE'S HUMOUR



London Opinion.]

ROMANTIC MOTHER: "I'd dearly love to dress 'im in a Mortar Board, seeing as 'is father's a bricklayer."



Passing Show.]

[London.

FATHER (to small boy whose mother has chastised him): "Hullo, young man, been in the wars?"

SMALL HOPEFUL: "Well, if you must know, I've just had an awful row with your wife!"



Passing Show.]

"Wot's the time, Halbert?"

[London.

"'Ow should I know? Ye don't expect me to 'ave a 'oliday and a watch at the same time, do ye?"



Passing Show.]

[London.

"Well, Bobby, so you're learning how to spell. Can you tell the difference between a 'd' and a 'b'?"

"That's easy, uncle. The 'b' has its stomach at the back!"



Die Muskele.]

[Vienna.

This year the wasps have the temerity to appear with their usual black and yellow colouring. Doubtless the Republican enthusiasts will take steps to colour them red.



Eagle.]

[Brooklyn.

THE NEW BADGE OF COURAGE.

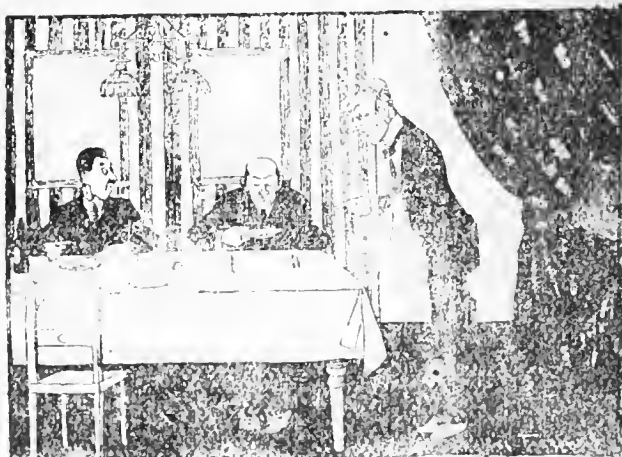


Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.

SURE SIGN

"This Meyer must be fabulously rich. This is the second time this year he has had his boots soled."



London Mail.]

WAITER: "Oh! your soup is all right, sir. It's the other gentleman's fish."



London Mail.]

THE LANGUAGE OF GOLFERS.

"Putting" on the "links."

General Birdwood has some good stories from Gallipoli. He told this one at Wellington recently:—

"There was one of your boys, who



London Opinion.]

VISITOR: "Isn't it rather peculiar the crows don't annoy you, seeing that you have no scare-crows?"

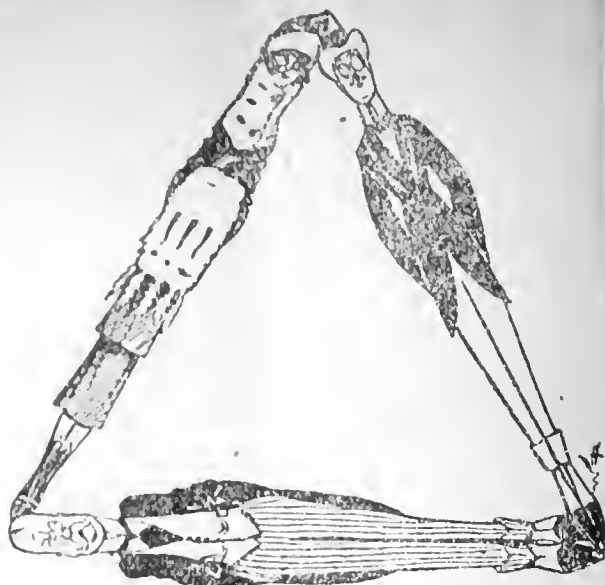
FARMER: "Oh, well, you see, I'm out here a good part of the time myself."



Sondags Nisse.]

[Stockholm.

The German war child returns from its holiday in Sweden.



Passing Show.]

[London.

THE ETERNAL TRIANGLE.

The standby of the modern dramatist.

surely showed the essence of casualness. It was at Quinn's Post. I found him in charge of a bombing post. In those days we did not have perfect bombs, by any means; they were of the home-made jam-tin variety. I asked him how his bombs were going on, and he replied: 'Damn bad! The bombs are no good at all. I'll show you!' And with that he lit the fuse of one of them. It fizzled and spluttered, and just as I turned to get out of the way, went off, a bit getting me in the garter, and a bit getting the bomber in the face. Turning to me, he remarked casually: 'Well, that's the first one to go off to-day.'



The Star.]

[London.

DAVID IN THE LION'S DEN.

"What are you sniffing at me for? Can't you see I'm not a human being, but a lion like yourself?"



Q.—Is the new Chief Commisssioner for Palestine Mr. Herbert Samuel or Sir Herbert Samuel?

A.—He is constantly referred to in the cables which are published in this country as Sir Herbert Samuel, but when he left to take up his post, he was plain Mr. Samuel, and I have seen no reference to his having been knighted since then.

Q.—Was Napoleon III. (the late Empress Eugenie's husband) Emperor at the time of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870?

A.—Yes. He took part in the campaign, and was captured, with 80,000 men, by the German armies at Sedan. Immediately after his defeat the Third Republic was established. Napoleon was released at the end of the war, and retired with his wife and son to Chislehurst, England. He was constantly ailing during his latter years with bladder trouble, being in very poor health at the time of the war. He died in January, 1873.

Q.—Who was first President of the first French Republic, and also of the second?

A.—The first Republic had no President. The National Convention first sat in November, 1792, and King Louis was executed in January, 1793. Danton, and after him, Robespierre, as heads of the Committee of Public Safety, were virtual rulers of the early Republic. Then came the Directory (1795), and in 1799 the Consulate of Napoleon Bonaparte, Cambaceres and Lebrun. In 1804 Napoleon's position as Emperor was recognised. The second Republic was established in 1848 by the overthrow of King Louis Philippe. Lamartine led the revolt, but Dupont de l'Eure was made provisional President. A few months later Louis Napoleon was elected President,

and in 1852 he became Emperor Napoleon III. Thiers was the first President of the third Republic (1870).

Q.—When was wireless telegraphy first used on a ship?

A.—In July, 1897, experiments were made with the Marconi system on the Italian warship, *San Martin*, messages being exchanged with the station at Spezia up to a distance of ten miles. In December of that year messages were despatched between the station at The Needles, England, and a steamer, up to 18 miles.

Q.—When was wireless first used to call assistance to a vessel in distress?

A.—In March, 1899, the steamer, *R. F. Matthews*, ran into the East Goodwin lightship, which was fitted with wireless. A wireless message was sent out, and assistance arrived promptly.

Q.—When did wireless come into general use?

A.—It was not until January, 1914, that the International Convention for Safety of Life at Sea was signed, and it became obligatory for all larger vessels to carry certain wireless equipment. The following events leading up to this general acceptance may be noted:—In July, 1899, three British warships used wireless communication up to 85 miles. In September, 1899, wireless reports of the international yacht races were sent to the *New York Herald*. Wireless was used by the British forces in the South African War. In February, 1900, the Norddeutscher Lloyd Company adopted the system for its steamers, and placed an installation on one of its big liners. In July, 1900, the British Admiralty made a contract for the wireless equipment of 26 Admiralty ships, and six coast stations.

Q.—Can you tell me anything of the negotiations with the Marconi Company for an Imperial wireless chain?

A.—Before the war it was almost decided to give the Marconi company the contract. The need for an Imperial system of wireless stations had been affirmed by the Imperial Conference in 1911. A committee was appointed by the British Postmaster-General to investigate possible methods, and this committee reported that the Marconi system was the only one of which it could be said with certainty that it was able to conduct a chain of wireless stations throughout the Empire. Recently the plan for a Marconi contract has been rejected on the ground that it would give the company monopolistic powers.

Q.—Do many people migrate to Canada?

A.—The total number of immigrants into Canada since 1891 was 3,730,321.

Q.—Why does Canada receive so many more immigrants than Australia?

A.—Canada's principal attraction is certainly its comparative nearness to Britain and European countries. This not only brings the cost of passage lower than the fares to Australia, but diminishes the feeling of separation from old associations. An immigrant to Canada may look forward, with luck, to a trip home in a few years, whereas a family moving to Australia must usually face permanent separation from home relatives. Canada also offered attractive terms for land settlement before the war—free land in some of the Western States—but it is doubtful whether the opportunities were better than those offered in Queensland. Since the war both Australia and Canada have given preference to ex-service men in opening land for settlement.

Q.—Are the periodic droughts in Australia responsible for the country's comparative unpopularity with immigrants?

A.—To some extent. But farming in north-western Canada is subject to hardships as great, if not greater. The winters are so severe that livestock has to be housed. The crops often fail to bring a return, though in a good season they are wonderfully abundant. Australia has a greater handicap than

droughts in her distance from the world's markets.

Q.—Which of the Australian States receives the greatest number of immigrants?

A.—In the five years before the war the net immigration, by excess of arrivals over departures, was, for each State, as follows:—

New South Wales	96,303
Victoria	70,344
Queensland	47,407
West Australia	34,464
South Australia	18,712

Tasmania lost over 8000 people by migration in those years. In proportion to present population Western Australia obtained the largest increase, Queensland coming second. Pre-war figures are given, as the war-time movements were quite abnormal.

Q.—It was reported that the Burns, Philp steamship company was about to remove to India on account of labour difficulties in Australia. What are the facts?

A.—The Company has sought to overcome its difficulties by forming a separate corporation for the inter-island trade. Meanwhile it is negotiating with the Commonwealth Government for a contract for the continuance of the trade between Australia and the Solomon Islands, Papua and Rabaul (New Guinea). The new "Burns, Philp (South Sea) Company, Ltd.," has headquarters at Fiji, and the arrangement is that the smaller steamers, carrying the produce from the outlying islands—Samoa, Tonga, the Gilberts, etc.—will tranship to American and European vessels at Fiji instead of Sydney. Sir James Burns, chairman of the Company, stated at the annual meeting that the cost of shipment to Sydney, and transhipment there was about £5 per ton, and it was hoped by the new arrangement to save a great part of this. The cost of running the smaller vessels to the islands had more than doubled in the past few years, and a great strain had been put upon the Company by strikes, dislocation of services and foreign competition. The Burns, Philp (South Sea) Company has paid the parent company £500,000 in scrip.

Q.—Is it on account of the anti-Asiatic clauses of the Navigation Act that the Burns, Philp Company has withdrawn some of its ships from Australia?

A.—The officials of the Company have not publicly stated this as their reason, but it can hardly be doubted that they have been influenced by the fact that, when the whole of the Navigation Act comes into force, vessels on the Australian register, besides those engaged in the coastal trade, will be precluded from carrying low-waged crews, whereas no such restriction will be imposed on a company registered at Fiji.

Q.—Is Great Britain allowing other countries to share in the developing of the oil resources of Mesopotamia?

A.—Believing that Britain would monopolise the oil resources in the territories taken from Turkey, the United States made representations to the British Government. "Assurances were received" (according to President Wilson's report) "that discrimination in granting and developing of concessions was not permitted." The report was sent to the Senate on May 18. It is difficult, however, to reconcile this with the cabled report of the Anglo-French agreement for the division of the Mesopotamian oil.

Q.—Was the Admiral in charge of the British Mediterranean squadron instructed not to engage the Goeben on account of her superior armament?

A.—We have not heard so, and such an explanation of the *Goeben's* escape is not at all likely to be correct, as the commander concerned has been generally blamed by critics for his failure to hold up the *Goeben* and *Breslau* when they were at Messina, Sicily, on August 5th and 6th, 1914. The vessels were bound, under the laws of neutrality, to leave Messina on August 6th, and their movements, according to naval historians, had been known throughout to Admiral Sir Berkeley Milne, in command of the British Mediterranean fleet, which included the battle cruisers. The German officers fully expected a fight, and made their wills before putting to sea. It was expected that the *Goeben* and *Breslau* would rush the Straits of Otranto, in order to join up with the Austrian fleet in the Adriatic, but, after heading in

this direction, they suddenly changed course to the south-east. The light cruiser, *Gloucester*, which had kept in touch with them, immediately notified this, and went in pursuit, but was beaten by the German vessels, both in fighting power and speed. So they escaped to the Dardanelles, where they played an important part in winning the support of the Turks, and stiffening the Turks' fighting forces. Hurd and Bashford, in their book, "Sons of Admiralty," go so far as to say that "indirectly at any rate, our campaign in Gallipoli, with all its consequences, derived from" the *Goeben* and *Breslau*. Admiral Milne had to face an Admiralty inquiry in connection with the incident, and his subordinate, Admiral Troubridge, was court-martialled at his own request. Both were acquitted of all blame.

Q.—Were the American steel workers really beaten in the recent strike?

A.—Certainly. They failed to establish their right to organise unions, or to put an end to the twelve-hour day, which is still in force in spite of the decision of the International Labour Convention in favour of an eight-hour day. Since the end of the strike, however, the employers have found it necessary to raise the unskilled labourers' wages by ten per cent., and other wages in smaller ratio.

Q.—Are poor householders in England protected against ejectment or increase of rent?

A.—Those paying rents of less than £1 a week are not to be ejected except by order of the court. In certain cases the court will grant such an order—for instance, if the landlord "reasonably requires" the house for himself, but a recent purchaser would have to show that the tenant could get accommodation elsewhere before he could get possession of the house even for himself. Rents must not be increased by more than 10 per cent., except to provide reasonable interest on improvements or to meet increased rates.

Q.—Under what circumstances did the United States get possession of the Panama Canal zone?

A.—The United States first sought to buy the Zone from Colombia, and a treaty for that purpose was agreed upon by the representatives of the two nations.

The Colombian Congress, however, refused to ratify it, on the ground that, at the time of signing, Colombia was in a state of siege, several of her states being in rebellion. It is suspected, however, that the real motive of the refusal was to obtain a larger payment. Immediately a new rebellion broke out, and Panama, with American assistance, seceded from Colombia, and sold the Zone on terms similar to those that Colombia had rejected—£2,000,000 cash, and an annual rental of £50,000 payable from 1912 onward. The opportune Panama rebellion, there seems no doubt, was fomented by persons interested in the United States' canal scheme. American warships prevented Colombian troops from landing to quell the revolt. Only four days after the revolt, the United States recognised the independence of Panama, and the Zone purchase was settled eleven days later. President Roosevelt used to boast that he first took Panama and then asked Congress about it.

Q.—What test must an aviator pass in order to obtain a certificate?

A.—The test demanded by the International Federation is: Two flights must be made, each consisting of five figures of eight. At each end of each figure of eight, the pupil must fly round one of two marked posts, which must be situated not more than 500 metres (547 yards) apart. The method of alighting for each of the flights shall be with the motor stopped at, or before, the moment of touching the ground, and the aeroplane must come to rest within a distance of 50 metres (164 feet) from a point indicated previously by the candidate. If an altitude of 100 metres is not once obtained in either flight, a second altitude flight is necessary, and a descent with engine stopped must be made from that altitude.

Q.—Has a prize been offered for a flight from America to Australia?

A.—Mr. T. H. Ince offered a prize of £10,000 to the first aviator accomplishing this flight.

Q.—Is the British Government offering prizes for the improvement of aeroplanes?

A.—Yes. The prizes offered are:—For large aeroplane, carrying 15 passen-

gers besides crew, £20,000, £8000 and £4000; for small aeroplane, carrying pilot and one passenger, and for seaplane, £10,000, £4000 and £2000. The main parts of the machines are to be designed and constructed within the Empire. The large planes must have a speed capacity of 90 miles and hour; the small machines, 100 miles. The large type must be able to climb 350 feet in the first minute, the smaller type 500 feet.

Q.—How many flying men are there in Britain?

A.—It is estimated that British aviators who have received certificates from the Royal Aero Club, or have passed through the Air Service, number more than 20,000.

Q.—Is not the medical profession likely to be overcrowded?

A.—There are more medical students enrolled this year in Great Britain than ever before. In fact, the numbers exceed the record year of 1891 by over 1000. The proportion of women practitioners has greatly increased, but newly-qualified women are finding difficulty in obtaining suitable opportunities for professional work. In view of this a warning has been issued with regard to the entry of women students.

Q.—Are American Ambassadors paid as well as British?

A.—The American Ambassador in London receives £4000 a year and a house. The British representative in Washington gets £20,000, and a fine residence. The American Ambassador must have private means. Mr. Whitelaw Reid, when he was in London, paid no less than £12,000 a year rent for Dorchester House, where he took up his residence.

Q.—Have the Austrian prisoners in Siberia been sent home yet?

A.—Very few have been sent back as yet. Dr. Montandon, representative of the International Committee of the Red Cross, which has charged itself with the task of repatriating the Austro-Hungarian war prisoners from Siberia, despatched the first batch of 1122 from Vladivostok, at the end of April. They left on the Japanese steamer *Schumkamaru*, which was previously engaged in the repatriation of Czecho-Slovak troops, and were to be disembarked at Trieste.



A DRAMATIC CRITIC IN RUSSIA.*

Mr. Sayler's book is composed of two elements, which follow each other in a more mechanical than logical sequence. One is a narrative of personal experience in Russia in the early months of the Bolshevik ascendancy. The other is a series of observations over the origin, the character and the significance for Russia of the Bolshevik regime. While each element is characterised by an unbiassed and sympathetic spirit, and each reveals a keen desire to get a firm grip of a most perplexing and continually changing situation, the latter element appears to be of greater value than the former, and together they seldom blend into one whole.

Mr. Sayler's contact with actual Russian life does not go beyond those things which inevitably intrude upon any casual resident of Russia. The avowed purpose of Mr. Sayler's trip to Russia was to study the Russian theatre, in which the author, as the dramatic editor of *The Indianapolis News*, was particularly interested. He never undertook to scrutinise economic or social conditions. In *Russia White or Red*, he gives those incidents of travel, of conversation, of city life, bits of colourful events, glints of a restless social landscape, which passed before his eyes in the train, or in his Moscow residence. Even from these remarks, however, something may be gleaned for the understanding of conditions prevailing then. Mr. Sayler is one of the few who appreciated the difficulty of demobilising the old Russian army. He finds only praise for the order and swiftness with which it was accomplished. "There were no orders, no plans, no preparations. They were demobilising themselves, and they were doing it with better grace and less friction than the tenderly nursed armies of the West."

Mr. Sayler is also one of the few who looked at the spiritual side of the revolution. He noticed that "the Russian, in his time of trial, turned not to dissipation and debauch, but to the things of the spirit." "The theatre of mere pastime and amusement has practically disappeared from the Russian scene. It is only the sober theatres and the most sober and substantial plays in their repertories that are demanded by the Russian audience to-day." Incidentally we learn from Mr. Sayler's notes that while in Moscow and Petrograd food was rationed and hunger was a real menace, in Vologda "milk and eggs were plentiful," in Arapovo there was bread *skolko hotitye* ("as much as you wish"); and in Samara the party of travellers had "all the bread they could eat and eggs and tea." Apparently the story of starvation could be applied to only a small portion of the Russian population.

Many more hints and clues about the Russian situation are strewn in Mr. Sayler's narrative of personal experience. The centre of gravity, however, lies in his remarks and conclusions about the Bolshevik revolution which he saw in the making.

Mr. Sayler, be it remembered, is not a Bolshevik. Lenin and Trotsky, to him, "are walking in the same twilight zone of shady morals with Koltchak and his bondsmen in Paris." Bolshevism to Mr. Sayler "is a strange mixture of class revenge and class tyranny leading designedly to a Utopian industrial democracy." Such attitude puts Mr. Sayler beyond suspicion of bias in favour of the existing system in Russia. The more significant become his reflections on the sources, the nature, and the outlook of the present revolution. Mr. Sayler knows that the Brest-Litovsk "peace" was sheer necessity. "Russia *could not fight*. Her army of 20,000,000 had been scattered, the transportation system

* "*Russia White or Red*." By Oliver M. Sayler. (Little, Brown and Co.)

wrecked, her food supply depleted below the civilian necessity. Organisation and morale were forgotten conceptions." Mr. Sayler testifies that "Russia White, through the capitalists and monarchists, is numerically in a hopeless minority," while, "for better or worse, the Soviet is the only form of Government, the only energetic power which the Russian has known since the revolution," and "the Bolshevik watch-cry, 'All Power to the Soviets!' was merely a demand for recognition of a condition already accomplished."

Mr. Sayler scoffs at the "delusion," fanned into a flame of wrath and resentment by the unprincipled propaganda of reactionaries—that "which attributes to the Bolsheviks the deliberate intent to exterminate the intelligentsia and all educated people." Himself in profound sympathy with the Russian intelligentsia, he does not fail to realise that what actually took place was a struggle of the Soviets against counter-revolution, for which the intelligentsia, and the educated classes, "by their natural qualifications," provided the leaders.

Mr. Sayler has much to tell about the attitude of the Allies and Americans towards the Russian revolution. The Allied embassies, he says, "instead of reading the signs of the times, and accepting inevitable facts as the basis of their programmes and their activities, heeded only the facts which pleased them, and then

wondered why events did not turn out as they had predicted." Mr. Francis, the American Ambassador, according to Oliver M. Sayler, never understood the nature of the Russian revolution as a *social revolution*. "Mr. Francis seemed always to be hoping that the various 'parties' would get together, compose their differences, and look to the welfare of Russia," whereas between the parties of the revolution and the conservative factions "there is a gulf impassable." It is to this misconception that Mr. Sayler attributes the fact, "least creditable to an intelligent world," that Lenin and his counsellors were identified with German imperial power.

Mr. Sayler is, of course, hopeful about the future of Russia. He wishes to see the present government of Russia recognised, and anticipates that the necessities of reconstruction would bring about a spirit of reconciliation between the radical forces of Russia. "Under those conditions, the violent methods of the dictatorship would be relaxed and finally abandoned."

Mr. Sayler's book strikes one with its tone of sincerity and broad sympathy for the groping of a nation towards a new freedom. *Russia White or Red* is free of any taint of propaganda, and among a torrent of writings full of distorted pictures of revolutionary Russia, it stands out as a truthful and honest if by no means profound contribution. M.J.O.

A DEEP SEA MEDICO.*

The conversion of the Hunter by the Good Shepherd is a recurrent theme in the sociology of Frederic Le Play. The hypothesis rests on the massive historic demonstrations of Judaism, Islam and Christianity; but followers of the French sociologist may well be grateful to Dr. Wilfred Grenfell for a closer and more intimate exposure of the same theme. It is true that Dr. Grenfell finds it easier to describe his missionary task among the deep sea fishermen than to uncover the personal reactions which the work evoked. In his naive freedom from introspection there is much of the conventional Englishman, and not a little of the

schoolboy. But while his failure to reveal the true inwardness of his dispositions is itself an illumination of character, it is irritating to have the whole phenomenon of his conversion dismissed in a single page. Up to the time Grenfell attended a Moody and Sankey meeting in 1885 he had run true to his Country House inheritance.

Rowing on the Dee, hunting in the Welsh Hills, playing football at Marlborough, young Grenfell was the apotheosis of the correct British schoolboy whom Meredith delighted to picture: his sole religious conviction was the belief that by observing good form and playing the game hard one might become qualified in the serene process of time for a place in the learned professions. (His

* "A Labrador Doctor: The Autobiography of Wilfred Thomason Grenfell." (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

family had never been addicted to business.) Religion seemed to him a mere softness of the flesh: indeed Grenfell confesses in a touch of happy candour that as a schoolboy he found a barrier between himself and Christ because he "could not think of Him in flannels or a gynasium suit." An accidental evening in Moody and Sankey's tent made young Grenfell a new man. When he left the meeting he was no longer a medical student dedicated to British respectability, but a missionary consecrated to universal Christianity. How this happened, alas! Dr. Grenfell does not help us to fathom.

Now, the interesting point about this conversion is that it did not turn Grenfell away from the sporting, fighting, adventurous life of his youth: it simply harnessed all these vital activities to a larger purpose. When Dr. Grenfell accepted the transfer from the North Sea fishing fleet to Labrador, in 1892, he laid the foundation of a wide and honorable fame as medical missionary through the fact that he was in the best sense of the word a good sport. Labrador was the

new hunting ground. Its harsh topography and exacerbating climate and primitive human misery called into fullest action those lean muscles and that undaunted equanimity which Grenfell's earlier life had developed. As the reader follows the tale of the difficult and exciting mission on the Labrador coast, he feels the man adding cubits to his spiritual stature. By the time the Labrador Doctor comes to found schools and co-operative stores the narrow evangelical missionary has become an ardent advocate of undenominationalism, and the middle class professional man has become an intent critic of the current business order. For a year during the war Dr. Grenfell was abstracted from Labrador to serve on a Harvard Surgical Unit. That year presents the palest chapter in an otherwise ruddily animated biography. The adventurous visitation which Dr. Grenfell makes annually challenges comparison with the ubiquitous laziness of modern warfare. It suggests that the most wracking of wars is hardly the equivalent of purposeful and militant peace. L.M.

NEW SOCIAL LITERATURE.

REVIEWED BY PROFESSOR MEREDITH ATKINSON, M.A.

Bolshevism: An International Danger. P. Miliukoff, LL.D. (Allen & Unwin; 12/6.)

This book of 300 pages is a historical account of the growth of Bolshevism, from 1905 to the present year. Dr. Miliukoff, formerly a Professor in the University of Moscow, was a leader of the Liberal intellectuals—the "intelligentsia"—of Russia. It will be remembered that he figured largely in the Coalition Government that preceded the Bolshevik Revolution. This book, though a scholarly analysis of the subject, exhibits the bias of the bourgeois attitude, scornfully repudiated by the Bolsheviks. Though it contains nothing very new in matters of fact, one welcomes the great detail with which Part II. deals with "the progress of Bolshevism through war and revolution (1914-1919)." The author blames M. Albert Thomas and Mr. Arthur Henderson for giving bad advice to the Provisional Gov-

ernment. Dr. Miliukoff told the Premier, Prince Lvoff, that only two courses lay before the Government—that of a strong power, which alone could save the revolution from its excesses, and the other a compromise with extreme Socialism, "which would bring about chaos, anarchy, civil war, and a separate peace." M. Thomas advised the latter course, while Mr. Henderson was also strongly favourable to workmen's control of factories. Hence the collapse of the Russian offensive, the chaotic retreat of the army, and widespread disorders, ending in the Bolshevik Revolution. The last part of the book describes the means adopted by the Bolsheviks for propaganda, all over the world, in preparation for the universal revolution. I have no means of knowing whether the author is always fair or accurate in his allegations against certain representatives of the Allied nations. But the mass of information, and the intimate narrative of

events contained in this book are alone sufficient to make it a most valuable contribution to this vexed question.

The Two Internationals. R. P. Dutt. (Allen & Unwin; 92 pp.; 2/6.)

This book is an excellent supplement to that just reviewed. The Socialist and Labour movements of all countries are now intensely divided on the question of whether their affiliation with the Second International shall be cancelled in favour of joining the Third. The first thing to remember is that this division of opinion is really very old, and chronically recurrent. It is the old struggle between the Left and the Right in International Socialism. A pamphlet dealing with "The Policy of the International," by its secretary, M. Camille Huysmans, a Belgian Member of Parliament, as long ago as 1916 defended the existing Second International against the charge that the war had killed it. The effect upon it of the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 was, however, much more profound. The Third or Communist International was founded on January 24, 1919, by the wireless message sent out from Moscow to the revolutionary groups of other countries. Mr. Dutt's book gives an excellent account of the origin of the conflict between the two, its historical development, and the present position of the Socialist parties in all important countries. A series of exceedingly useful appendices contain the relevant documents, which are of the greatest interest to all students of international politics.

Economic Liberty. Harold Cox. (Longmans; 263 pp.; 7/6.)

Those who feel in need of a corrective after reading books on Bolshevism will find it in this new work, by the editor of *The Edinburgh Review*. Mr. Harold Cox began as a Fabian Socialist, but soon saw the error of his ways. He has long been recognised as the protagonist of anti-Socialism, and a defender of "the liberties of the subject." In this book he discusses the old familiar subjects of economic liberty, the ethics of property and of Socialism, the class war, the fiscal controversy, the delusions of equality and nationalisation. The writer has a heavier hand than Mr. Hartley Withers,

who is to be commended for his sense of humour. Like many such writers, Mr. Cox has no difficulty in finding numerous foolish statements of Socialists to refute. Moreover, he assumes quite readily that the acknowledged material achievements of capitalism have in themselves some ethical merit. This seems to me the most extraordinary confusion of ideas, of which the defenders of the system are guilty. Let it be admitted at once that the credit side of capitalism, in material values, is very considerable. But this has nothing whatever to do with its ethical values. This is a sufficient criticism of practically all the apologetics being advanced to-day on behalf of the *status quo*.

The Vested Interests. Thorstein Veblen. (Huebsch, N.Y.; 183 pp.; 1 dollar.)

Professor Veblen will be well remembered for his book on "The Theory of the Leisure Class," and for getting into hot water with the vested interests in America, for his advanced and outspoken opinions. He begins this work with a more or less philosophic discussion of the instability of knowledge and belief, and the stability of law and custom. The change effected in the industrial arts by the mechanisation of the system of production is closely analysed, and the nature and extent of the surplus value created is described. Then comes the treatment of the "vested interests," which Professor Veblen shows, to reside "in those persons who are highly skilled in the higgling of the market, the masters of financial intrigue. And so great is the stability of that system of law and custom, by grace of which these persons claim this power, that any disallowance of their plenary control over the material fortunes of the community is scarcely within reason." The "financial end" of the interests of a business, rather than the matters of management which formerly concerned its head, now fixes the attention of those in control. The writer does not omit to credit the system with a high level of national prosperity, but its economic and moral defects are ruthlessly exposed. The three final chapters of the book are best described by their

headings—"The Divine Right of Nations," "Live and Let Live," "The Vested Interests and the Common Man." This work is a valuable piece of academic thinking, infused with a deep humanity, none the less effective for not being perfervid.

The Social Diseases. Dr. J. Hericourt. (Routledge; 246 pp.; 7/6.)

I recommend this work unreservedly to all who wish to get a thoroughly sound knowledge of the modern treatment and sociology of the great plagues of humanity—tuberculosis, syphilis, alcoholism and sterility. The average reader will find many current ideas corrected, and an immense amount of up-to-date information concerning the prevalence of, and the remedies for, these social diseases. One is surprised to learn that much of the treatment of tuberculosis common to our age is condemned. The most hopeful feature of the work lies in the fact that medical science, sociologically applied, has now a complete equipment for ridding the race of these terrible menaces to its existence. On the other hand, the apathy of governments, and the ignorance of the public, are mountains yet to be removed from the path of reform. The influence of the war, particularly in regard to syphilis, is declared by this French authority to have increased the percentage of syphilitic males from one-third of the whole by an additional third at least of those infected. The same refreshingly scientific and sane treatment of alcoholism, and the causes of sterility is given. While the causes of the falling birth-rate apply particularly to France, a concluding chapter deals with "The Social Maladies in England." Such a book deserves a great welcome in these times.

SOME BOOKS WORTH READING.

Economics. J. Cunnison. (Methuen; 168 pp.; 5/-.)

Elementary Economics. Prof. F. T. Carlton. (212 pp.)

Foreign Exchange in Accounts. G. Johnson. (Wilson; 135 pp.; 6/-.)

Auguste Comte. F. J. Gould. (Watts & Co.; 122 pp.; 3/6.)

The Taint in Politics. Anon. (Grant Richards; 288 pp.; 7/6.)

Industrial Anarchy and the Way Out. W. W. Crotch. (Hutchinson; 132 pp.; 2/6.)

The Industrial Clinic. Prof. E. L. Collis. (Bale; 239 pp.; 10/6.)

A Social and Industrial History of England, 1815-1918. J. F. Rees. (Methuen; 197 pp.; 5/-.)

Wages and Prices. Philip Snowden. (The Faith Press; 124 pp.; 1/6.)

Nationalisation of the Mines. F. Hodges. (Parsons; 4/6.)

The Profits of Religion. Upton Sinclair.

Life and Labour in the Nineteenth Century. C. R. Fay. (Cambridge University Press; 319 pp.)

PAMPHLETS WORTH READING.

Family Life in Germany Under the Blockade. Lina Richter. (National Labour Press.)

The Hungarian Revolution. C. H. Schmitt. (Workers' Socialist Federation.)

Pre-War Diplomacy. E. D. Morel. (Independent Labour Party.)

The Old Order in Europe, and the New Order in Russia. M. Philips Price.

Russian Code of Labour Laws. People's Commissariat of Justice. (People's Russian Information Bureau.)

The New Communist Manifesto of the Third International. Preface by Wm. Paul. (Socialist Labour Press.)

The World Revolution. Dr. Herman Gorter. (Information and Research Bureau, Scotland.)

Fifty Points about Capitalism. Sir Leo Chiozza Money. (Palmer & Hayward.)

Through Dictatorship to Democracy. Klara Zetkin. (Socialist Labour Press.)

Chino-Japanese Treaties of 1915. (Allen & Unwin.)

Hands Off Mexico. J. K. Turner. (Rand School of Social Science, N.Y.)

THE STARVING CHILDREN OF EUROPE.

A NEW APPEAL FOR RELIEF.

The continued distress in the famine-stricken areas of Europe has been strongly emphasised in recent mail reports, some of which have declared that conditions are worse than last year, or at any time during the war. Now comes a renewed appeal by cable from the Lord Mayor of London, who declares that £1,000,000 is needed immediately, and urges the people of the British Empire to unite in this "healing of the nations."

The British relief work is separate from the American. Under Mr. Hoover's direction the American people have been giving splendid help. The number of hungry children in Europe receiving wholesome meals from Mr. Hoover's distributors was given not long ago as 3,000,000, and in addition, 2,000,000 Armenians were being fed. The British Save-the-Children Fund received £325,000 in the first four months of the present year, and the April total was over £100,000, including the £ for £ subsidy granted by the British Government. Possibly, with the rising contributions, the relief may have been increased since March, when it was shown that the efforts made up to that time, extensive as they were, were tragically inadequate. The Prince of Wales recently spoke of the distress in these words: "Millions of people in Europe are still in the grip of famine, misery and despair." In this regard, he said, "It seems to me that the British peoples have a very special duty laid upon them."

For some months compassionate folk in Britain had been asking that parties of the ill-nourished children should be brought from Europe to be entertained in their homes. Switzerland, Holland, Italy, Sweden and other countries had already done great works of healing in this way, but it was doubted whether it was wise to bring children so far as England. However, as the suffering has continued, the step has been taken. Hundreds of children have become guests of English folk, and are enjoying good bread and butter, and the much-needed milk, of which many had been deprived for years. A member of the committee

that received the first party of 500 Viennese children, wrote:—

The majority are quite obviously victims of under-nourishment, thin and pale, and peaky-faced; a few are, in appearance, quite normal—till they are undressed, and the bones are seen standing out in their poor little bodies. One poor little soul writes home, as of a portentous event, "I am getting milk and bread and butter."

It has sometimes been overpowering to be in the presence of the pinched cheeks, and the poor rags of these little victims, and to realise that they are the happy and fortunate ones, that there are many hundreds who have to remain behind, with cheeks much more pinched, and rags to which these are finery—not because we cannot afford to bring them over, but mostly because they are too ill to come.

Viennese people themselves have been organising for relief of the children during the present European summer. They hoped to send thousands to the country for a health holiday.

A notable feature in Vienna is the relief work conducted by Madame Hallier, wife of the general in charge of the French Military Mission. Her committee has been maintaining 3000 middle-class families, who were not receiving help from any other organisation.

Auckland (N.Z.) recently opened a Save-the-Children Fund, to which gifts of £2300 were made in a few weeks. The Auckland Red Cross added another £1000. Other New Zealand towns are also collecting.

Australia's contributions to the fund up to the end of May were about £10,000, almost all of which was from the Melbourne Lord Mayor's collection. This fund is still open. The address is: "Treasurer, Save-the-Children Fund, Town Hall, Melbourne." The War Victims Relief Committee of the Society of Friends (20 Russell Street, Melbourne) is also sending donations and gifts through its London committee, either for general relief in Europe, or to private addresses. This Society does most of the distributing of the Save-the-Children Fund in Austria, Germany, Hungary, Poland and Russia, whilst the Armenian, Serbian and Bohemian work is in the hands of other British committees.

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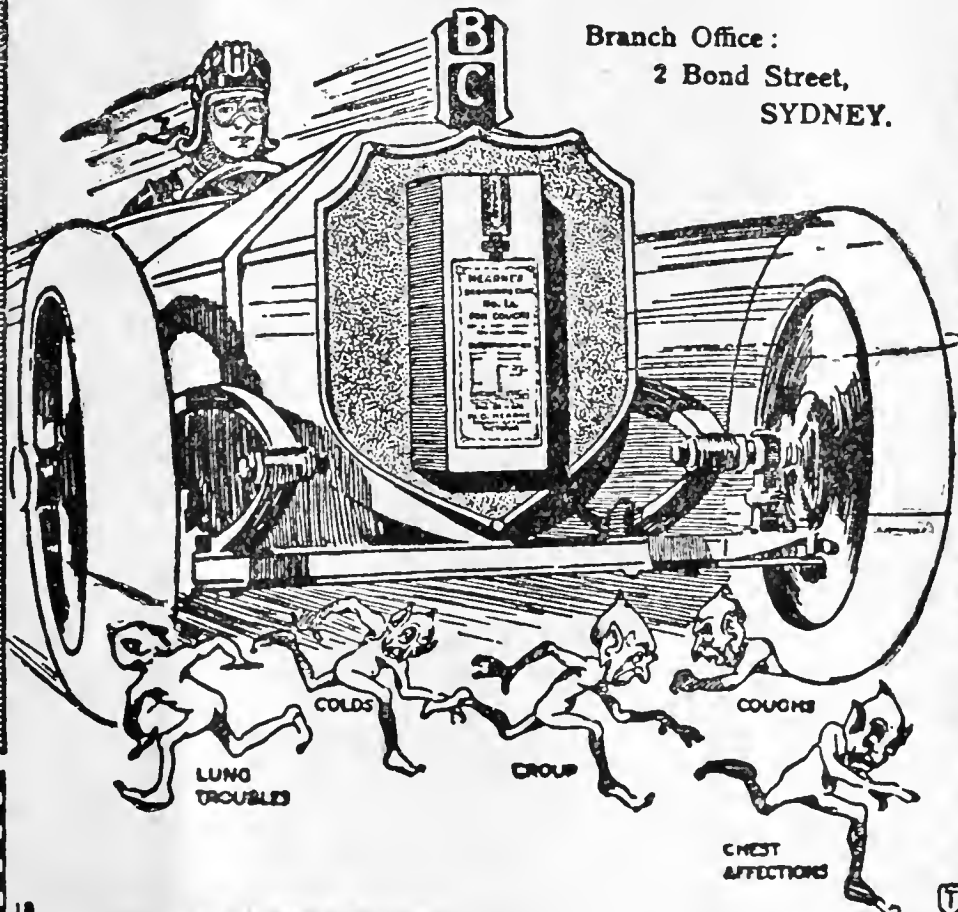
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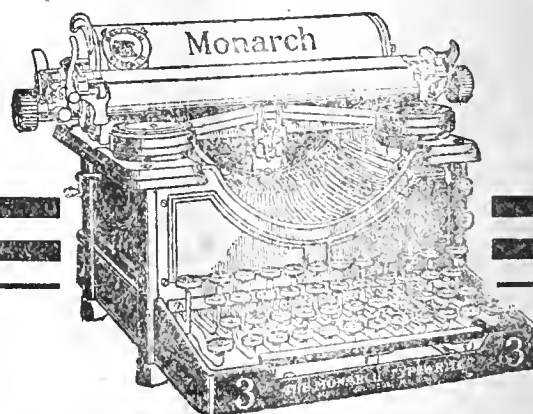
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FINANCIAL NOTES.

Matters on the stock exchanges have needed some vitalising agent to brighten up business. Of course, Adelaide has been so hit to the fence over the mad rush for Hampton Plains' shares, that it is out of the game for the time being. And while Perth kept a very careful hold on itself, Kalgoorlie investors went as mad over the dealing as the worst bull in Adelaide. So far as can be estimated, the people who have made the most out of the boom in Hampton Plains, are the shrewd speculators in London and Adelaide who bought cheaply, sold "on the rise," and then went pyramiding as bears on the fall.

Securities have been heavy of sale. This does not arise from the size of the return on stocks and shares, but because of the upsetting effect of a 6 per cent. Commonwealth Peace Loan. The Victorian 5½ per cent., free of income tax, loan had a very fair subscription. That fact told on the market, and led to such new issues as that of the Royal Bank of Australia having only a momentary flutter. This bank issue is one that should appeal to shareholders, as they are let into the new scrip on a very satisfactory footing. So far, very little dealing has taken place in "rights," but on a £6 8s. selling basis for the old paid-ups, buyers worked out that the new paid-ups would be worth about £5 17s., because of the fact that they only rate for dividend from October next. Exceedingly favourable balance sheets were published by both the Commercial Bank of Australasia and the Bank of Victoria. But the market failed to move, even to inducements of the kind.

THE VICTORIAN LOAN.

The view has been enunciated that the Victorian loan floatation, so far as the local issue of £2,250,000 went, was a non-success. To the investor, the rate offered was a-half per cent. lower than that of the Federal Second Peace Loan issue. If it had not been for that fact, the tendering would have been far larger than was the case. What kept many

people away was the threat of force in regard to the Commonwealth loan. So, on the face of it, subscriptions amounted to only about 25 per cent. of the loan. That, however, did not matter to the Treasurer. He had arranged with the underwriting banks for a commission to them of 1 per cent., but if tenders had gone in to the full amount of the loan, then the State would have had to pay to the brokers another ½ per cent. On the other hand, if the banks had to take up the loan, and then unload, they would have to pay the commission. Hence the loan, from the departmental point of view, was a success. If it had not been underwritten, the reverse would have been the case. That it was underwritten made all the difference—a fact unobserved by the critics. What is more gratifying is that the conversion of the balance of £2,250,000 on London, at 6½ per cent. to the bond-holder in the expiring loan, has gone on famously. The subscription received makes the way ahead very much easier for the Treasurer. As he took a big business risk in the matter he deserves his luck.

THE THEODORE MISSION.

On talking to public servants about the reception given to Mr. Theodore's loan proposals in London, it is surprising to find how they simmer up over the subject of whether Mr. Theodore got his deserts or not. From the outset, Mr. Theodore had an awkward mission to fulfil. If we judge him aright, he was as well acquainted with that fact as any of his critics on this side of the line. Still, his comments seem to indicate that he expected, by means of persuasion and persistence, to get the cash he was after. That he looked in upon New York on the road to London, may have been only an incident, but can it be imagined that he failed to try the purse strings of financiers there? If he did not we can hardly regard him as being the Mr. Theodore we knew of old. The outburst about the Men of the City by Mr. Theodore was as foolish as his

talk of the refusal to lend tending to the loosening of the ties that bind the Empire together. If the Theodore dogma is that the tie is to be the golden fetter, and not the silken thread, it will soon be found that Mr. Theodore has not got to the inner kernel of Australian sentiment. What he has learnt is the lesson taught to thousands of borrowers—capital must be treated well, or it will flow away. Equally, if the least doubt exists as to the future, it will refuse to accept investment. And it is because Labour in Australia has still to recognise both these postulates, that the Ryan-Theodore policy has led to a cutting off of supplies in London.

COMMERCIAL BANK OF AUSTRALIA.

The recent request by the directors of this bank that they be given authority to increase the capital of the institution was, in essence, an appertif, furnished to shareholders awaiting the fifty-fourth balance sheet of the company. To appreciate the position the capital of the bank, as from last year, must be set out as follows:—

Preference capital	£2,117,350
Ordinary capital	95,659
<hr/>	
Total	£2,213,009
Less Special Assets De-	
ficiency	542,660
<hr/>	
Net actual Capital . .	£1,670,349

The items here look out of balance, with an ordinary capital of only one-twentieth of the preference capital. The deficiency in the special assets trust account seems to deepen that impression. All this arises through the exigencies of the past, but the situation is not adverse to the institution. That it can have the call of £2,117,350 of capital at a fixed 4 per cent. rate in these times is a boon and a blessing, like the possession of a Pickwick pen during the war. The purchase by the directors of a banking business in Tasmania a year or two ago con-

veyed a lot. As it was a cash transaction, the fact was apparent that the bank had, as was generally surmised, exceedingly strong internal resources, the result of the policy of caution adopted by the board ever since the periods of reconstruction. So, when the last balance sheet made its appearance, no one was surprised to see that the £50,000 appropriated during the 1917-18 term, to the re-instatement of capital, and the £70,000 set apart in 1918-19 had been increased to £100,000. Consequently, the net estimated deficiency is now £442,660, or £200,000 less than it was in December, 1917. The day when this item could disappear under ordinary circumstances must be within easy measurable distance. It is clear, also, from the expanding figures of the balance sheets, and the last total of £19,614,889, that, as the directors say, they may have to consider at any time the question of increasing the capital. A move in this direction involves bringing close the day when the ordinary shareholder will come into his own. The question then is whether the preference shareholder may put forward a claim to a very substantial adjustment of his position. So far as the actual figures in the balance sheet go, they show liquid assets of £8,766,000, against £17,786,000 of liabilities to the public. Of the liquid assets, £7,001,523 represents coin, notes, money at short call in London and short-dated Treasury bills. Excluded from the list of liquid assets are two gilt-edged items—the wheat, and late war loan advances—aggregating £619,093. This total is much larger than the bank's holding of government, municipal, and other public stocks, debentures, etc. In view of the recent increase in the deposit rates, it is noticeable that the bank holds £9,553,489 of deposits not bearing interest, against £5,926,864 deposits, bearing interest, the total of all the deposits having jumped in the last two years from £10,618,000 to £16,377,000. Advances in the same time have moved from £7,976,000 to £9,015,386. In the past year they have really been reduced by over £720,000, due to the partial wiping out of the wheat advance, and the advances for war loan purposes.

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CONDY'S CRYSTALS.

(Continued from page 157.)

out his hand to lift himself up, and touched the boots, and found that they were near his pillow.

Shepherd was now fully awake, with every sense alert. His hand went at once to his most cherished possession—his pistol—and was relieved to find it had not been taken. But another surprise awaited him, the pistol pouch was closed! Someone must have fastened it up since he fell asleep, for he never went to bed without unbuttoning his pistol-pouch, and, on the previous evening, it had remained unbuttoned ever since he watered his horse. He got up quietly, and was obliged to stand still for a minute of two till the throbbing in his head died down. He had intended to wait till after another meal before proceeding on his journey, but his suspicions were aroused and he decided to clear out at once.

He stepped quietly outside. The moon was half full. A kerosene bucket of water was standing near the ashes of the fire and he went over to it to bathe his aching head, but as he lifted it to a more convenient place, the handle rattled. The noise seemed greater to him than it really was, because his nerves were at great tension and the night was very calm, and he stood still and listened for a time with the bucket in his hand. Before he set it down again, a slight scratching noise came from the shed, and drew his attention to the open door, which was black against the brightness of the moon on the iron. The noise continued. Gradually Shepherd's eyes became accustomed to the darkness inside the shed, and he saw Champy crawling over the floor towards the entrance. Then a ray from the moon, shining through a hole in the old iron, struck light on something the man held in his hand. It was a revolver!

Shepherd had not moved, but as these things in the darkness gradually became clear to him, his body must have tightened like a spring, for when he acted it was with surprising suddenness. Without the slightest warning he dashed the water at the crawling figure with tremendous force, and before the astonished man had a chance to recover, he flung

himself upon him. If the man was indeed old, he was no weakling. Shepherd gained an immediate advantage and never lost it, or victory might have gone to the scraggy giant whose power and quickness of limb were truly amazing. They struggled in silence and in darkness, the old man trying to lace his arms round the body of the younger, who, with a bull-dog grip on his adversary's throat, held on and waited for the inevitable end. He could not have waited long. Champy at last caught one of his wrists with his other hand and pulled down with all his force on the back of the man who was kneeling above him. A little longer and those terrible arms would have broken either Shepherd's resistance or his back, but when a numbness was beginning to creep over his straining legs, he felt Champy's grip relaxing quickly. He dug his thumbs deeper into the man's lean throat and kept them there, till the body under him became limp. Then he bound and gagged his treacherous host and laid him back on his swag.

Those fiercely strenuous minutes had dispelled the last traces of poison from Shepherd's brain, and he set about his next tasks with great dispatch. He caught the two well-conditioned horses, put his own riding-saddle on one, and Champy's pack-saddle on the other. He ransacked the store for rations to last him for a couple of weeks, and jammed the pack bags full. When he came to the grog cupboard, he paused. Perhaps, after all, the liquor had not been bad. It may have been his exhausted condition which sent it to his head so quickly. With all this tucker he wouldn't be exhausted for a long time yet and he could afford to have a nip now and again. So he packed two bottles in straw envelopes and carefully put one in each bag. Two small canteens of water and a water-bag completed his load, and after a good drink of tea and a feed, he made a hearty sandwich of damper and meat and put it in his pocket so that he would not have to start cooking straight away.

It was still not much after midnight when Jack Shepherd, with a laughing good-bye to the bound man, swung himself across his fresh horse and took the leading-rein of the other in his hand and rode away.

A day later, almost to an hour, Trooper O'Hara, following hard on the fugitive, struck the tracks of the camel waggon. The marks of Shepherd's horse were so clear on the sand, and the capture of the man was so urgent, that O'Hara and his mounted black tracker had ridden through several successive moonlit nights. They could afford to do this, for they each had a spare horse, and an abundance of rations. When they came to the wheel tracks, they only paused for a moment or two, and then pressed on in pursuit. Eventually they came to the belt of stones where Shepherd had turned off.

The moon was now low, and whereas it is easy enough to follow sand tracks in a dim light, it needs the full strength of the sun to notice whether one stone has been pressed into the ground more firmly than its fellow, by the passing over it of horse or man. O'Hara rode straight ahead across the stony belt for about a mile till he struck sand on the other side, and searched up and down the edge to find the spot where Shepherd had continued his journey. But in vain. Werry, the black tracker, met with no better success as he tried to find out whether the rider had gone up or down the belt of stones.

Finally, when the moon was nearly setting, they gave up the search till daylight, and set out to follow the waggon tracks in the direction the camels had most recently taken, which was away from the water-hole. In less than half an hour, they heard a bell, and presently the ungainly forms of several camels loomed up weirdly in the uncertain light. The animals were not hobbled, for both hobble-straps were fastened round the same leg, and the loose links of the chains clinked as they walked slowly away to join their fellows who were fastidiously picking at the low bushes which dotted the dreary plain. Nothing but sheer carelessness could account for this state of affairs.

A quarter of a mile further on a dog barked at them, and almost at once they came upon a long waggon carrying three tanks of water, pulled up on the track, with the harness and chains scattered round in confusion. As soon as O'Hara saw the harness, he knew that something was wrong, for a camel teamster, when he is on the road, always leaves the

collars, spiders, and chains in their right places, ready for hitching up in the morning. The dog had retreated under the waggon and stood there, looking out between the wheels, growling defiance.

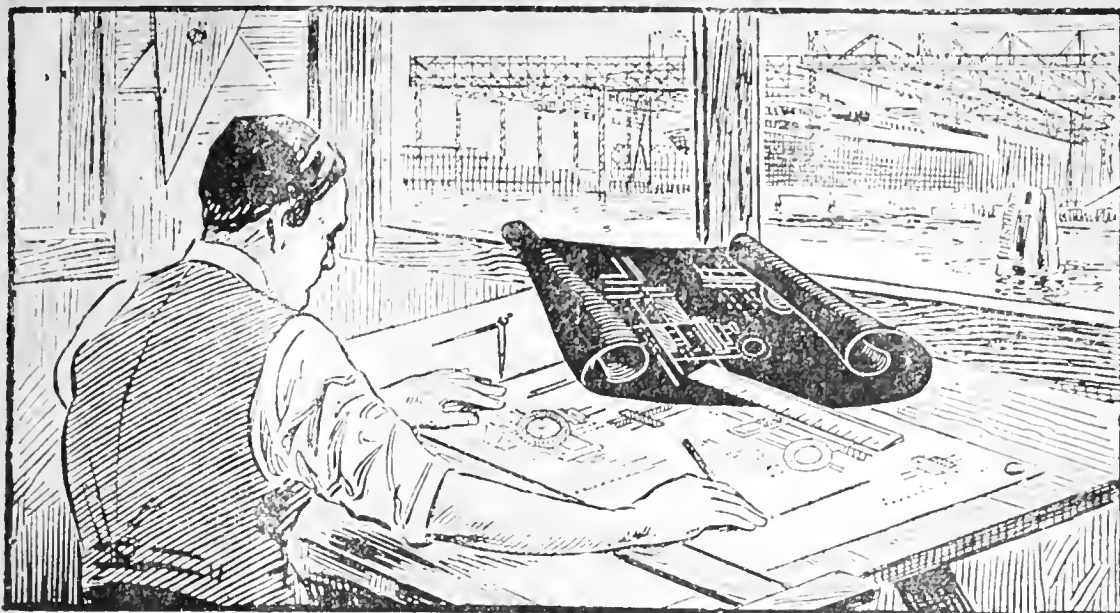
The trooper gave the bushman's camp-call: "Anybody home?" but received no answer.

"White man in there," said Werry, pointing under the waggon.

It was too dark for O'Hara to see, so he lit a hurricane lantern which was hanging from the back of the waggon, and stooped down. The dog made a rush at him, but he kicked it out of the way, and when it came at him again he called to the black boy to tie it up. Two men lay on the sand, snoring and fully dressed. One was a big youngish-looking white man, the other was a nigger. Both their heads were resting on the same swag. Two or three bottles lay near them, but even without this evidence, it was clear that the men were in a drunken sleep.

O'Hara picked up one of the bottles. It was empty, but the smell made him hunt round till he found one which had a few drops of liquor left in the bottom of it. The stuff was a reddish colour. A Central Australian trooper may have a "beat" of 250 miles each way, and his duties are consequently more varied than those of members of the force down country. Excise work is one of these duties, and O'Hara immediately knew that the liquid in the bottle was faked grog. He had come across this mixture in the bush once or twice before. It was nothing else but methylated spirits coloured with Condry's crystals, and often went by the name of "pinkie."

He tried to rouse the white man by shaking him and shouting in his ear, but the heavy snoring went on without interruption, so the trooper dragged the man out unceremoniously from under the waggon, and doused him again and again with water, till he was soaked from head to foot. Even such drastic measures as these only made the drunken man move uneasily in his sleep, so O'Hara put his hand over the man's mouth and squeezed his nostrils tight to stop his breathing. A choke, a struggle for breath, and the man's eyes opened and looked vacantly at the trooper. He tried to speak, but as soon as O'Hara took his hand away he immediately fell



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off again into a deep sleep. It took nearly half an hour to rouse him, and when he regained sufficient consciousness to realise that he was being questioned, he was only able to give the most muddled answers.

"Wha' yer want?" he grumbled.

"I want a drink," O'Hara shouted in his ear.

The man spread one hand out with a weary help-yourself sort of gesture, but the trooper shouted back: "They're all empty."

There was no answer, but a sleepy smile spread over the drunkard's face, and he would have lapsed into unconsciousness again if his questioner had not shaken him vigorously. "They're empty," shouted O'Hara, again. "I want a drink. Haven't you got 'ny more? Here! Wake up! Haven't you got 'ny more?"

"Got 'ny more. . . . Got 'ny more," mumbled the man. "'Course 'e's got some more. . . . Lots of it."

"Who's got it? You? . . . Here, I'll drown you if you don't answer me. Who's the bloke that's got the grog, eh?" The trooper shouted at the top of his voice as if sheer physical force was necessary to pierce the drugged man's consciousness.

"Who? Why, ol' Champy, o' course. . . . Camped near Box 'Ole. . . . Good fella, Champy. Lot's o' grog. . . . Quid a bottle. . . . Lot's o'. . . . lot's o'—." The slow voice trailed away to silence, and O'Hara let the man sink back into profound sleep.

The moon had set more than an hour ago, and it was too dark to travel further that night, so the horses were unsaddled and let go till daylight to shuffle about in hobbles and search for a few mouthfuls of feed. O'Hara put a rope round the sleeping nigger and dragged him some distance away from the waggon and left him sprawling there. He put the white man back on the swag and then lay down himself and slept for the few remaining hours of night, as only healthy men, tired out by exercise in the open-air, can sleep.

He awoke at the rising of the morning star, sent Werry after the horses, and had breakfast, and was on the way to the water-hole before the sun was up. He left a bucket of water and a

pannikin near the sleeping white man, for he knew what a terrible thirst he would have when the deadening effects of the drug were wearing off.

When they reached the spot where Shepherd's tracks crossed those of the waggon, O'Hara sent the boy over to the belt of stones to investigate, while he took the pack-horse and rode straight ahead towards the water-hole. In about three miles he struck Shepherd's tracks again, and had no difficulty in picking them out from the camel pad, for the sun was now half an hour high. As he rode up the sandy bed of the creek and came in sight of Box Hole, he noticed an ill-conditioned horse standing dejectedly under a tree. It was evidently a worker, for it did not gallop away at his approach, and when he got up to it he saw recent saddle sweat-marks on its back. Then he saw something that surprised him still more; the tracks which the horse had made round the tree were those which he and his boy had been following for days. This was Shepherd's horse.

The trooper was on the alert at once. If Shepherd's horse was hanging round the water-hole it meant that the man himself must be camped somewhere near. This puzzled O'Hara, for the fugitive was a consummate bushman and knew quite well that he could be followed anywhere in that part of the country, and that there was no such thing as outwitting a black tracker. Perhaps the man thought he had a longer start than was actually the case, and could afford a day's spell for himself and his horse; the poor beast certainly looked as if he needed one. Then the thought of grog flashed through the trooper's mind. If an exhausted man, such as Shepherd must be, had drunk doctored liquor, the end of his long ride for freedom had now been reached and he was practically a prisoner already, for no one could possibly withstand the terrible effects of methylated spirits.

But O'Hara was a cautious man and took nothing for granted. He dismounted and led the saddle and pack horses quietly to water and then hitched them up to separate trees, taking care that no loose metal such as stirrups or

bits or buckles could rattle and betray him. When all precautions had been taken, he made sure that his automatic pistol was ready for instant use, and then climbed the bank of the water-hole. He at once saw Champy's iron shed with the bush shelter leaning against it.

The trooper stood behind a tree for a few minutes and waited, motionless. Nothing stirred, not even the leaves of the box trees, glistening in the sun like thin slabs of green bronze. He walked out into the open for a few yards and stood still again. Unbroken silence. He went noiselessly nearer the shed. All at once he heard the pad pad of a ridden horse on soft sand. He cocked his pistol and turned round and faced the sound, crouching behind a mound of spinifex grass. There was no need for alarm. It was only his tracker, Werry, who had easily followed Shepherd's horse over the stones and had come on to the water-hole. O'Hara tacitly attracted the boy's attention and signalled him to stay where he was. Werry drew rein and sat motionless while the trooper again turned towards the camp.

He stole to the fire. The ashes were cold, but boot tracks all around convinced him that he was hot on the scent. They were Shepherd's boots. Creeping up to the wall of the hut, he peeped between two uneven sheets of iron into the interior. At first he could see nothing, but somebody was there, for breathing came from one corner of the room. As his eyes became accustomed to the gloom, his ears also caught sounds of restless moving and occasional mutters. At last he made out a man rolled up in a camp-sheet. The face was not at all clear.

O'Hara moved round to the door and slowly pushed it open with his left hand, while his right held the pistol. The door was made of old strips of iron loosely nailed to a frame, and it rattled. The muttering stopped for a moment and the shadowy form on the ground lay dead still. O'Hara pushed the door open a little more.

"Who's there?"

The trooper was crouching out of sight and did not answer.

"Who's there, damn yer? Is that you, Timmy, yer young b——?" Timmy

was Champy's black boy who had not been near the camp for two days.

O'Hara still kept silence, but gave the door another push, till it swung wide and banged against the wall, making a great noise. The bound man had seen the hand and noticed that it was white,

"Hi, there, yer bl—— thieving b——, Yer've come back, 'ave yer?" he shouted, thinking it was Shepherd. "Don't stay sneaking there. I know who y'are. I can tell yer bl—— stink, yer b——. What yer done with my 'orses, damn yer? . . . And 'ow long yer goin' ter keep me 'ere?" The man realised his helpless position, and broke off into the most terrible blasphemy ending in spasms of almost incoherent rage.

O'Hara had met Shepherd many times on friendly terms in the past, and knew his voice well. This was certainly a different man. Concealment was no longer necessary, so he stood up and looked in through the open door. There was nothing in the trooper's appearance to indicate his calling, and he kept his pistol hand behind his back. He satisfied himself that the old man was alone before setting him free, and then gradually, out of the mass of profanity, pieced together the tale of Champy's abused hospitality. At times the man was beside himself with rage, and threw all caution to the winds, even telling the stranger that two bottles of his wine had been stolen out of the cupboard. This was one of the things that the trooper especially wanted to know, the rest was perfectly clear from the ransacked state of the store, and from the tracks which eventually led away to the north-west.

O'Hara could not afford to waste time by arresting a mere sly-grog seller when he was close on the heels of an important criminal, so he trusted that the man, in his excitement, would not guess who his second visitor was, and he cleared out as soon as he had got all the information he could.

The trooper and his boy rode all that day and the next, and the morning of the following was half gone when two moving objects appeared in the distance. At first it was difficult to tell what they were, for quivers of heat rose from the sand and distorted all objects more than half a mile away, but

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as the men rode nearer, the animals proved to be hobbled horses, shuffling steadily back in the direction of the Box Hole. Examination of their tracks led to a startling discovery. These were Champy's horses, the very ones which Shepherd had stolen. The man they were after was, therefore, somewhere in that vast desert, alone and on foot! The pursuit of a criminal at once changed to the rescue of a perishing man.

Werry unhobbled the homing horses and let them go, and then followed his master who was pushing on as fast as he dare. They camped that night beside a native well, but saw no traces of the white man, except the cold ashes of a fire, and tracks which led on again from the place in the same north-westerly direction.

Next day, about noon, O'Hara was wondering whether he should give the horses a spell for an hour or two and make up for the delay by travelling on in the cool of the night, when he saw a dot near the horizon and slightly to the south of the line of hoof marks. The plain was so barren that any object whatever caught the eye, and this one looked as if it was moving. Mirages filled every distant depression, and around the whole circle of the horizon was a band of delicately tinted vapour, on which the sky appeared to float like a blue dome of the frailest glass. The blazing sun made vibrations rise from the burning sand like invisible smoke, and the distant dot was sometimes seen and sometimes clouded out of sight. For another mile the men did not alter their course, and then O'Hara, who was riding in the lead, pulled up and waited for the tracker. He got as clear a view as he could by looking through a hole made by half clenching his fist, and had almost decided that the thing was an emu, when Werry said, in a decided tone: "White man out there."

O'Hara did not immediately take the boy's word, but watched as intently as the glare would permit. The object was doing nothing but move backwards and forwards in an aimless manner. If it was indeed a man, whatever could he be doing? Werry repeated his assertion, adding, as the result of further scrutiny: "Me think him take off clothes."



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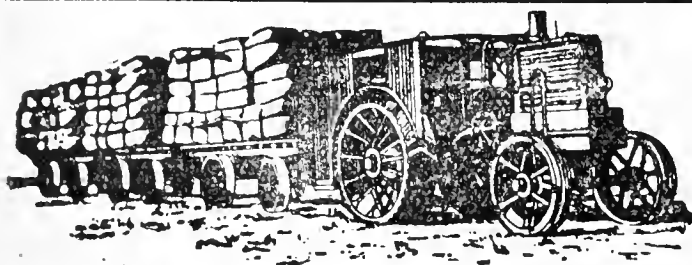
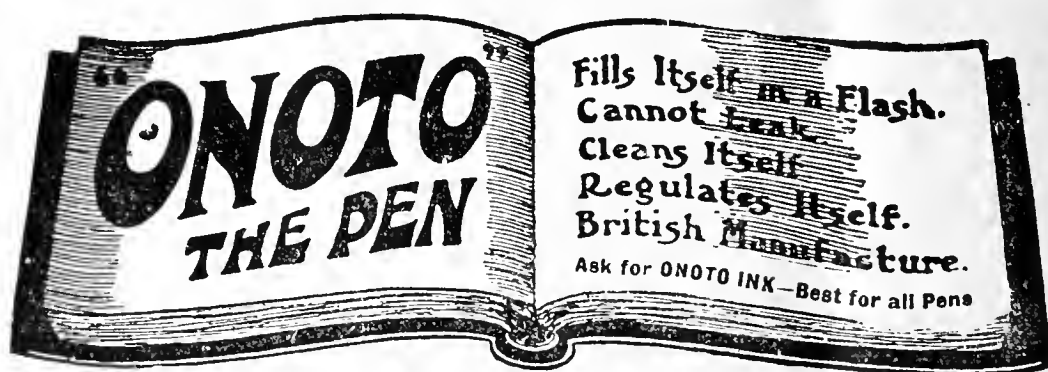
The trooper did not answer, but led off in the direction of the moving dot. He had not gone far before his own sight confirmed his tracker's assertion. It was indeed a man! Shouting to the native to come along steadily, he set his horse at a canter. Presently a dark thing on the ground to the right attracted his attention, and he rode over to investigate. It was a man's shirt. Then one to the left, connected with the former by tracks of bare staggering feet. It was a pair of trousers. Finally he found a hat.

The man took no notice when O'Hara rode up. The trooper shouted, but there was no more response than if the desert silence had remained unbroken. In the centre of a little depression of bare clay, were three bottles standing upright together. Surrounding the basin was a sandy rim, where a naked white man was stumbling on doggedly round and round, round and round. By the tracks of his shuffling feet, he must have been drawing that terrible circle for several hours while the pitiless sun beat down on his unprotected head. His tongue lolled out of his mouth and was dark coloured and swollen, his head jerked forward loosely with each stride, and his tottering legs were bent almost to a right angle at the knees. If he sank just a little lower, his hanging hands would touch the ground, and then he would crawl over the burning sand, like

any other dying beast, round and round, round and round, for nothing but utter exhaustion would stop that parade of death.

O'Hara got off his horse and let the reins hang down so that it wouldn't move away. Then he stood directly in the path of the shambling figure. It came on unheeding, with glazed eyes and spent senses, and bumped into the trooper as if the hour had been pitch dark midnight instead of brilliant noon. O'Hara caught it before it fell and laid it down gently and looked into the man's face. It was Jack Shepherd.

Five days later, two mounted men and a native rode up to the Box Hole from the north-west, and gave their horses a drink. One of them was so weak that many short rests had had to be taken during the past few days, and even now, he appeared to be keeping himself upright in the saddle more by will power than by physical strength. When the horses had satisfied their thirst, the party rode up the north bank to the iron shed and bough shelter which stood there. The place was deserted. Nothing that was worth anything remained. The ashes were a week old. It was evident that O'Hara, in setting Champy's horses free from their hobbles, had given the man the means of escaping, for the buggy had gone also. The old grog seller had taken no chances.



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DOES MY LADY KNOW THAT



The black taffetas evening dress seems to have come to stay, and it is being so made that it is not in the least dowdy. Ruching helps it a great deal, and the fairly long fold-over bodice is also extremely pretty. The swathing avoids all effect of outlining the figure, and the waist exists only as a line. These black dresses are the most witch-like with their unmistakably full skirts, over which are perhaps two aprons ruched all round, and showing a glimpse of bright darkish blue as they swing. The cross-over bodice is also ruched at the edges, and so are the elbow sleeves.

The ordinary mucilage made from gum arabic does not fix paper to wood or pasteboard. This disadvantage may be overcome by adding alum, dissolved in ten times its quantity of water. Mucilage prepared in this way will not become mouldy.

Rhubarb skins peeled off the sticks and rubbed hard on copper will remove all stains. Finish off by rubbing the copper with a soft rag, and you will get a bright polish.

To render your galvanised iron dustbin perfectly sanitary, burn a couple of newspapers, or two or three handfuls of straw in it every time it is emptied. Let the fire flame well, and it will remove in a few seconds every trace of grease or damp from the iron, and render the dustbin as healthy as a new one, and quite free from any unpleasant smell.

Gas mantles are still expensive, and as fragile as ever, but you will find that

they last much longer if, before using, this simple precaution is followed. Take a hatpin, and place it through the loop at the top of the mantle. Then immerse the mantle in enough vinegar to cover it. Place over a glass until dry, and then put on the gas burner in the usual way. Mantles treated thus are impervious to draughts and shakings, and one that has been in use for three months is still perfect.

Here is a novel use to which you can put your old suede gloves, either black or white. First make a rectangular buckle, the required size, either in strong cardboard or buckram, and cover it with the suede. You ought to get enough out of the fingers to do this. Then out of the back of the glove cut a fan-shaped piece, but don't cut it to a point. This piece must be ruched up to fill in the space in the centre of the buckle, and then stand up over the instep like a fan. The edges must be cut to make a fringe. The "chou" should be made as full as possible in order to ensure that it will stand up over the instep, and not flop over the buckle. If it shows signs of doing this a little fine wiring may be necessary.

A splendid plan to get fine begonias is to set the potted plant in a pot one inch larger in circumference than the one in which it is growing? For example: If the begonia is in a five-inch pot, place it in one measuring six inches, and fill the space between with fine sand. Keep the sand moist all the time but never water the plant directly.

The life of the motor springs of a gramophone may be prolonged indefinitely if the following rules are strictly followed:—(1) The springs should be thoroughly cleaned and lubricated once a year. Many people have noticed a jumping and a loud thump in the motor at times while it is being played. This is due to dry springs which, after having unwound to a certain degree, stick

until the resistance offered by the inner coils of the spring is overcome by the coils at the outer end, when they release with a jerk and a thump, causing the noise mentioned. In many instances expensive records have been ruined by this action, causing the reproducer to jump. (2) Always allow the motor to run down after using it. This takes the tension off the springs, causing them to relax against the walls of the barrels, thus greatly prolonging the life and tension of the springs, as well as causing the spring lubricant contained in the barrels to work its way through and among the coils, ensuring their lubrication as long as the lubricant is fluid. (3) Never wind the spring up so tight that it cannot be wound farther. It is better to keep it at about a middle tension, even though it has to be wound after each record.

When rightly used, and correctly filled, a "beauty bag" can be of real use. The "touch of powder," so prevalent in these days, is too frequently applied by means of a soiled powder-puff, or a piece of leather. The best thing to use—if you need powder—is a tiny square of lint (the smooth side, not the woolly one); when soiled, the lint can be thrown away. A piece of lint must be cut up into small portions, about one inch, or an inch and a quarter square. By this means the powder will always be quite sure of being applied with a clean "puff substitute." One has only to glance at the puffs in use to see the necessity of this. The greatest care must be taken that the face is thoroughly dried before the powder is applied, especially if hot water has been used. The powder must be a very fine one, and it is absolutely essential to keep it either in a close-fitting tin, or a well-stoppered, wide-mouth bottle, so that the air is excluded, or otherwise it will become damp and injurious to use. The powder must be a good one, and in buying it a vegetable one must be sought. Far more important than powder is the tiny cake of soap that must be carried in the beauty bag of those who have to use cloak-rooms, and the tiny towel, even if it is only one of the paper ones, to avoid the deadly risk of a soap or towel used by others, as both may be the means of sowing untold misery.

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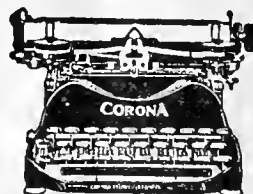
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